The Nation.

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The Week.

THE adoption of the Conference report on the Silver Bill by the Senate is a very happy termination of a bitter controversy. The bill, as we have said, is a better measure than the existing law. It puts an end to the arbitrary coinage of $2,000,000 per month on the first of July, 1891, and although the coinage meanwhile will be at a higher rate, the bill puts in the hands of the Secretary of the Treasury a fund for meeting the possible drain on his resources, namely, the $55,000,000 held to redeem the notes of national banks retiring their circulation. Hitherto this fund has appeared among the assets of the Treasurer in his monthly statement, but has been offset by an equal liability. The law does not exactly wipe out that debt, but authorizes the Secretary to treat it as a contingent and undetermined liability, and to use the $55,000,000 like any other funds in his hands. Therefore he can draw upon it, if need be, to purchase the 4,500,000 ounces of silver bullion per month. His ordinary receipts will not be lessened during the next twelvemonth by the bullion purchases. The question whether the Secretary is really required to purchase any bullion under the new law was hotly debated in the Senate. The opponents of the Conference report contended that he was not required to buy a single ounce. The other side "had no doubt" that he would purchase 4,500,000 ounces per month till the 1st of July, 1891, nor have we; but we also have no doubt that he could fix the market price so that none would be offered to him. The bill was drawn so as to protect the Treasury against embarrassment and possible insolvency. The discretion left to the Secretary was really necessary to this end, and is, therefore, right.

The admission of Wyoming as a State is a notable event, because it brings into the Union for the first time a commonwealth where women exercise the suffrage upon the same terms with men. Wyoming was the first Territory to try this experiment, and never has shown any disposition to retrace the step. The admission of a woman-suffrage State is a decided victory for the cause, which has not of late been making much progress in the older commonwealths.

Most of the press censorships in Europe are content to order certain articles to be left out of the newspapers, without dictating what they shall print. The Republican dictatorship set up at Washington, which has Speaker Reed at its head and "Jim" Belden as press censor, is not content with any half-way authority. Having coerced the Republican Senators into holding a caucus on the Elections Bill, the Speaker directed his press censor to put the screws on the Republican press of the country to compel the caucus to take the action he desired. Listen to the closing paragraph: "Will you not do your duty in urging that the Senate shall respond promptly by the passage of the measure which the House deems essential, absolutely essential, to the purity of the elections of its own members?" We do not know which was the most amusing feature of the execution of this order—the prompt obedience of such leading papers as the New York *Tribune* and the Philadelphia *Press* (edited respectively by the United States Ministers to France and Russia), or their stupidity in publishing Belden's order along with the evidence of their servility. As for the "dignity of the Senate," of what avail will executive sessions and all the other time-honored precedents be to preserve it if the Speaker of the House, issuing his orders through the newspapers, can decide what the action of the Senate shall be? If Horace Greeley sees the *Tribune* in his present abode, it must make him blush for his old paper to see it meekly allow its course to be dictated from Washington by two country politicians, one from Maine and one from Syracuse.

Mr. Blaine's last letter on the McKinley Tariff Bill, relating especially to the sugar clause thereof, shows that he is very much in earnest, but there is small probability that it will accomplish the end he seeks, namely, the retention of the duty on sugar for reciprocity trading purposes. The repeal of the tax on raw sugar is the one thing that the Republican leaders rely upon to sweeten the McKinley Bill to the farmers. Mr. Blaine knows this, and therefore he drives straight at the farmers with his argument. He tells them that if the sugar duty is retained, he can use it as a wedge to force open the Cuban and other foreign markets for their breadstuffs and provisions. If it is repealed, as the McKinley Bill proposes, he tells them that a duty of more than 100 per cent. will be put immediately on flour in the ports of Cuba and Porto Rico in order to protect the Spanish millers. He says more. He tells them that "there is not a section or a line in the entire bill that will open a market for another bushel of wheat or another barrel of pork." This is a condemnation of the entire McKinley Bill. It is really a stump speech against the measure. Mr. Blaine has reached the time of life when persons in responsible station usually weigh their words. It cannot be doubted that he weighed these words, and that he had a purpose in writing them over and above the sugar duty. It looks as though he intended to "knife" somebody. Very likely McKinley himself is the person aimed at. To tell all the farmers in the United States that their interests are ignored in the whole bill is to furnish the opponents of the McKinley Bill, and especially the opponents of McKinley himself, with a weapon of destructive power. This saying of the Plumed Knight will cut some figure in the next campaign. The somewhat startling figures presented to the Senate by Mr. Allison, betokening a Treasury deficit of $70,000,000 to $140,000,000 the coming year, may help to carry Mr. Blaine's wishes into effect, by showing the very great danger of throwing overboard $54,000,000 of revenue in such a crisis.

It is a matter of some significance that the commercial classes of Germany are moving to have the prohibition of American pork rescinded. Probably the movement would be successful but for the new barriers against German trade that we have lately put up in the McKinley Administrative Bill, and those we are preparing to put up in the McKinley Tariff Bill. That these measures have had a most irritating effect all over Europe there is every reason to believe. Even in England there has been talk of retaliation, but England is probably the only country in which there will be none. It is the only country, too, in which American protectionists would be glad to see measures of retaliation adopted.

Retaliation in the way of tariffs is having a great run at the present time in Europe, the latest example being the prohibition of Servian pigs and pork by Austria. This action on the part of the great empire against the small land-locked principality is intended in part to have a political effect, and to teach the Servians to keep a civil tongue in their heads. It has nevertheless an economic side also, and is intended to give the native swineherds a monopoly of the home market. The area of the commercial war that was declared against Rumania by Austria a few years ago, and which has been productive of untold misery to the poorer classes in both countries, is thus extended southward, and more half-starved ignorant peasants and half-starved ignorant operatives are made to suffer by being deprived of the right to buy their food and sell their products to the best advantage. The weakness of the poor is their poverty. It is impossible to make these victims of the protective policy understand what it is that takes the bread out of their mouths and the clothing off their backs. Rumanian peasants have been obliged to sell their sheepskin coats at the beginning of winter in order to pay their taxes since the commercial war with Austria began. Yet they have apparently no conception of the cause of their misfortunes, and would not be able to understand it if it were explained to them.

The collection of half-a-dozen British war vessels at Esquimault harbor has given occasion for some surmise that they may be intended to protect British sealers in Bering Sea. It is not unlikely that the orders to these ships, which must have been issued months ago, were given with a view to such

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contingencies. It does not follow that guns will be fired. The latest advices from Washington are altogether peaceful. The official despatches will be published shortly, and they may be followed by the *pourparlers* of Mr. Blaine and Sir Julian Pauncefote. What we have been led to expect in the latter batch is some evidence that Mr. Blaine and Sir Julian had arrived at an understanding some time ago, but that President Harrison refused his assent, being moved thereto by the entreaties of the North American Commercial Company, the new lessee of the seal islands, which, having bid more than it can afford to pay for its privileges, is extremely anxious to prevent any seals being taken anywhere at any time by anybody except itself.

Lord Salisbury has probably removed one of the elements of danger from the Newfoundland trouble by informing the French Government that French officers cannot be permitted to exercise police powers, and enforce the regulations of a treaty with Great Britain on British soil. It was the landing of French naval officers to order the removal of the Newfoundlanders' huts and nets which promised to make the existing complications really grave. The execution of the treaty belongs to Great Britain. The French are only entitled to call attention to infractions of it and ask for redress. It is for the British naval officers to see that Newfoundlanders respect it. Accordingly we believe the practice on the spot is now so amended that the French officers complain to the British officers, who then see that right is done. But that any colony will submit to the usufruct of its shore and waters by foreigners very much longer is most unlikely. If the French are not bought out by the home Government, the Newfoundlanders will certainly discover some other way of getting rid of them.

The establishment of cable communication with Bermuda is one of the great events of the century to that little fragment of the British Empire, and a matter of interest to the many Americans who have learned the charms of that delightful winter resort. Not a few, doubtless, will feel a mild regret that the isolation which has been so notable an attraction of the place is thus broken, but they can console themselves with the reflection that the daily paper in Bermuda seems very remote, so that they may still escape hearing what is going on in the rest of the world every day. The "modern improvements" are, of course, great things, but the people who knew Bermuda before there was a cable, will always feel that they were more fortunate than those who "can send a message to any part of the world."

The adjournment of the Louisiana Legislature leaves the lottery question in a muddle from which only the courts can extricate it. Finding that they lacked in the Senate one vote of the two-thirds required to override the Governor's veto, the lottery managers made a virtue of necessity, changed front, and took the ground that the Governor's signature was not essential. It is a fair question which is the correct view, and precedents can be found by each side in other States, the Pennsylvania Legislature, for example, having submitted at the same session two proposed amendments, of which one went to the Governor for his signature and the other not. The Louisiana bill, however, contains other provisions than the one regarding submission. In case the courts hold that the amendment may go to the people, the issue will not be decided until 1892, and there will be a chance that a healthier public sentiment may be aroused in the meantime.

Evidently the Republican managers are becoming uneasy over the "Farmers' Alliance," the party press beginning to offer urgent advice on the subject. A paragraph in the Cleveland *Leader*, for example, which is now going the rounds of the rural postmasters' newspapers, informs the farmers that "The efforts that are being put forth in this and many of the Western States to induce the Farmers' Alliance to act as a political body are purely selfish, and have in view the aggrandizement of some clique or party rather than the benefit of the farmer or the advancement in strength and influence of this organization." "The proper field for such an order," the *Leader* thinks, "is educational and coöperative. It can do the farmer vastly more good by keeping him acquainted with improvements in the methods of production, changes in markets, and the like, than by becoming a political body. Class parties are never successful for any length of time and rarely benefit the classes organized." This advice is meant to be taken as disinterested, and in reproachful contrast to the "purely selfish" efforts of others who "have in view the aggrandizement of some clique or party," and no doubt the *Leader* would be much comforted by the spectacle of the farmers educating each other in "improved methods of production, changes in markets, and the like," and abstaining from political action. But, unhappily for the *Leader's* party, the farmers themselves are "purely selfish" so far as this movement goes; they are in it for their own "aggrandizement," and political action is the only means by which they can effect anything. They will get improved methods of production and changes in markets, for instance, as the result of a rational and just system of taxation.

The Postmaster-General, who has just been celebrating his fiftieth birthday by a more than usually unctuous discourse to his Sunday-school, has written a long letter to the Post-office Committee of the House in answer to the publishers who protest against the passage of a bill which proposes to put paper-covered books in the same postal category as bound books, and make them pay one cent postage for every two ounces. He argues that it is not cheap postage which has made books cheap, but various other agencies, including "the absence of an international copyright law, enabling publishers to reprint books without authorial expenses." We think this phrase, "authorial expenses," is perhaps the most amusing contribution this particular pirate has made to the copyright discussion. The calm, and gusto even, with which he points out to the publishers that one of the advantages they enjoy in this happy land is the privilege of stealing the materials of their business, is very droll. It is very much as if he were to deliver one of his religious addresses to some Southern negroes of larcenous antecedents, and remind them that one of the great advantages of their condition under our Constitution was that "they could all get their chickens without paying farmerial expenses." He recently declared in an advertisement that what sustained him in robbery of the Blacks was that in "handling" their Encyclopædia he was doing what was morally right, and therefore felt perfectly "serene." We have no doubt this is true. To be miserable when doing wrong, one needs a moral sense, which in most pirates is very imperfectly developed.

Some of the phenomena produced by strikes in this city are very curious. T. K. Garside, the leader of the cloakmakers' strike, gave this account of his followers in one of the morning papers:

> "I can but refer with honest pride to the work we have accomplished in this strike. An almost unorganized body of men, with little or no knowledge of the principles of unionism, with no money in the treasury, ignorant of the English language, standing against hunger and privation, forms a scene of pure heroism unlike anything yet witnessed."

One would suppose naturally that men in this condition, suffering from want of food, and cut off, through ignorance of the language, from knowledge or understanding of the institutions of the country, would be so absorbed in the economical aspects of their struggle with their employers that they would have neither time nor inclination for the general work of legal reform. But we find in the *Tribune* of Sunday the following report of what occurred at a general meeting of the unions connected with the cloak business on Saturday:

> "At a meeting of the unions yesterday morning in Pythagoras Hall, resolutions were passed instructing the Amalgamated Board of the strikers to insist on that clause in the demands submitted to the Manufacturers' Association which provides that the strikers shall be paid full wages for the time they have been idle. Resolutions were also passed condemning the June and July Grand Juries, which refused to indict the manufacturers for conspiracy, and it was decided to request the State Legislature to abolish the system of trial by grand jury as 'a relic of the feudal ages.'"

This surpasses the demand of the Minnesota Farmers' Alliance that the Supreme Court should be abolished, because the farmers were presumably acquainted with the English language and to some degree with the history and functions of the Court. But we presume all the cloakmakers knew about the Grand Jury was that it was something, either animal, vegetable, or mineral, which prevented the employers from being tried, convicted, and sent to the penitentiary for conspiracy. Labor has already in this city asked for the repeal of all laws

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against boycotting and for the abolition of the police. If all these demands for reform from this quarter were complied with, New York would probably be the funniest place in the world for an able-bodied and well-armed man of a humorous turn to live in.

The death of Gen. Frémont removes from the stage one of the notable characters of our time, but his career was too uneven to leave any lasting mark in history. There was a romantic coloring to his earlier years which led to his nomination for the Presidency in 1856, but, after the election, the opinion gained ground among Republicans of a reflecting turn of mind that his success would have been more disastrous to the party than his defeat. This opinion was considerably strengthened after the outbreak of the war, when he was put in command at St. Louis and gathered about himself, or allowed to be gathered, the so-called "California gang." When at a still later period he was summoned to trial in a French court on the charge of swindling and was condemned in his absence to fine and imprisonment, the glamour of the Pathfinder, for the most part, faded away. Nevertheless, there remained sufficient gratitude for his early services, and perhaps sufficient sympathy for his early defeat, to warrant President Hayes in appointing him Governor of Arizona Territory. This was the only civil distinction that he held, but he was, a few months ago, raised to the dignity of Major-General in the Army, and put on the retired list for the purpose of giving him a salary.

The British Ministry have finally settled their troubles in the most ignoble way by abandoning the Irish Land Bill and the Welsh Tithes Bill, as they have abandoned the License Compensation Clause. So there is now no contentious matter left on their hands, and the Opposition has won a complete victory. They made a feeble attempt to get the Standing Orders changed, so that bills might go over from one session to another, and be taken up in the next session at the exact stage in which they had been left, but they could not come to an agreement with the Opposition on this point, and did not dare to adopt a bold suggestion of Mr. Balfour's that they should propose the change and make the motion non-debatable. Their plan now is to have a November session, and in it start the bills afresh; but this brings down on them curses not loud but deep from the rank and file of their supporters, for it will interfere with hunting and other sports. Of their dissolving Parliament there is not any more likelihood than of a condemned criminal's asking to have his execution hastened. They will stick until 1892, come what may in the interval.

Two or three weeks ago Mr. Gladstone gave his views upon the subject of education at considerable length before a committee appointed to investigate the claims of Hawarden to the establishment of a school under the new Welsh Intermediate Education Act. After briefly discussing the local question, he expressed the opinion that classical education was "the very best of all for all those capable of profiting by it and proceeding far enough to realize solid attainment"; but terrible errors, he added, had been committed in the past in endeavoring to force the mere rudiments down the throat of everybody in a certain condition of life, irrespective of either circumstances or capacity. To technical education he attached the highest value and importance, and, by way of illustration, he pointed out that the main purpose of education is to make the youthful mind not a mere repository that is to be filled with goods like a shop, and to remain in its original condition when the goods have been withdrawn from it, but a supple, effective, strong, and available instrument for whatever purpose it may be applied to. In referring to recent triumphs of women students at Cambridge, he said that a great deal was yet to be done in the way of technical education for women. He was not, he said, an enthusiast for educational endowments in general, and had grave doubts whether the large amount of educational endowments in England did not make education dearer, although the initial endowments, which enabled boys and girls to get into the running, as it were, he held to be excellent. He resented extremely, he added, the arrangement by which girls and young women, while admitted as students, were prevented from touching one penny of the vast wealth accumulated by the universities. With regard to Greek he was inclined to think that it was waste of time to teach it to boys who would not continue the study of it after they were sixteen years old, although there were exceptions to all rules. Physical and corporal education generally, he thought, ought to be promoted. The hand and the eye ought to be trained, and in the training of the eye natural history was very beneficial. His distinct feeling, he said, was that in the higher classes of schools during the last thirty or forty years too much consideration had been given to modern languages, and too little to the observation of nature. One of the sorest places in the whole educational question, he remarked in conclusion, was the competitive element in the awarding of scholarships, but he scrupled to give an opinion concerning it, choosing rather to be governed by the experience of those who had been actual witnesses of the results of the modern academical system.

The formation of a Conservative Ministry in Spain was an event not expected in that country even by sanguine Conservatives themselves; the latest utterances of their newspaper organs before Sagasta's resignation being in the nature of a despairing recognition of his command of the situation. This makes it probable that his resignation was entirely voluntary and considered by him to be his wisest political move. If he can return to power after the next elections with a strengthened majority behind him, as it is very likely that he may, the brief Conservative interregnum will have simply served to relieve him from some awkward temporary embarrassments. He was manifestly not yet ready to dissolve and go to the country, though a declaration of his made a couple of years ago, to the effect that the passage of the Suffrage Bill would necessarily carry with it the dissolution of the Cortes, was triumphantly adduced by his political opponents in support of their cry for an immediate bringing on of the general election. Their zeal cooled at once on coming to power, and they adjourned the Cortes till Christmas, fixing February as the time for the choice of new Deputies. This seems to be playing into Sagasta's hand, though it must still remain doubtful if he can effect a reconciliation among the factions of his party, and get the full benefit of his popular-suffrage measure, by next February. At all events, the Conservatives cannot undo the Liberal enactments of the past five years; indeed, Cánovas is a man of most enlightened and progressive views, and will doubtless be ready to declare now, as he did at the time of a former return to the Premiership, "The Conservatives do not propose to change the history of Spain, but to continue it."

There is a good deal of difference of opinion over the execution of Maj. Panitza, the Bulgarian officer, who was shot the other day for conspiring against the Government of Prince Ferdinand. The Russians, and the French as Russian allies or partisans, as a general rule condemn it in strong terms as an act of inexcusable brutality on the part of the Prince and his Minister, M. Strombuloff, while the Germans and English are disposed to approve it. A bad complexion was given to it by the Prince's having signed the warrants just as he was starting on a junketing tour, and by the fact that the prisoner had no warning that the sentence would really be carried out. The truth is, that this is the second attempt of Bulgarian military officers—men who have sworn allegiance to the government of the principality—to overturn it. The first one succeeded in actually kidnapping the reigning Prince and carrying him out of the country, and this one, had it succeeded, would have resulted in anarchy and the intervention either of Russia or Austria. Bulgaria is having a hard struggle for life and a very heroic one; Russia being her principal and most dangerous enemy, because Russia organized the Bulgarian Army, wrung Bulgarian emancipation from the Porte, and has therefore a great many partisans in the Bulgarian service, many of whom, it is said, are really in her pay, and doing her bidding, and Panitza was undoubtedly among the number. Strombuloff, the present minister, is a man of the Stanton type, able and patriotic and unscrupulous, who is determined to save his country by any means within his reach, and he had made up his mind that if the habit of mutiny and conspiracy was allowed to grow up unchecked among the regular troops, the game might as well be given up.

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THE FORCE BILL.

THE main difference between the Federal Election Law which the House has just passed and that already on the statute-book lies in the increased powers the former gives to the supervisors of election. The act of May, 1870, empowered the Circuit Court to appoint supervisors of election on the petition of two citizens in cities having over 20,000 inhabitants, or on the petition of ten in any county or parish in a Congressional district. These supervisors were to watch the registration of voters wherever such registration existed; to mark as challenged all persons whom they thought improperly registered, and to affix their signatures to the list. They were also directed to attend at all elections of all Representatives in Congress and watch the voting and counting and "scrutinize" the manner in which the poll-books and tallies or check-books were kept, and they were further to "personally scrutinize" each ballot cast. It will be seen from this that the duties of the supervisor were simply those of inspection or verification. He was to examine the register and verify it by house-to-house visitation if necessary. He was to mark the names of those whom he thought improperly registered. He was to watch the polls on election day and challenge when he thought it necessary, and he was to be present at and participate in the final count.

The Lodge bill provides that this supervision shall take place in any city on the petition of 100 voters, and in any Congressional district on the petition of 50. But the supervisor's powers go much beyond those assigned him by the Act of 1870, for he may pass on the qualifications of challenged voters; and, not only this, he may take any ballot which the State officers refuse to receive, and put it in the ballot-box himself, making a record of the case, and also may show voters in what boxes to deposit their ballots, in case the voter, through inability to read, should be unable to discover the proper boxes. Moreover, when the persons declared to be elected by the Federal canvassers are not the same as those declared elected by the State canvassers, the Clerk of the House is required, on pain of fine and imprisonment, to place on the rolls of the House the name of the person declared elected by the Federal officials. In short, the bill, to all intents and purposes, takes the election of members of the House out of the hands of the State officials. It is, whether called for or not, a tremendous step towards centralization.

The strongest speech made against it in the House came from Mr. Tucker of Virginia. He maintained with great force that the power given to the supervisor to pass upon the qualifications of voters was a direct violation of the second section of the first article of the Constitution, which says:

> "The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature."

Under this bill, clearly, the supervisor will pass on the qualifications of State as well as of Federal electors, for they are one and the same. He pointed out, also, that whether Congress has the constitutional right to interfere with elections in this manner or not, it was the belief of the framers and their contemporaries that such powers would never be exercised. He showed that the construction put, at the time of the adoption of the Constitution, by Massachusetts, South and North Carolina, New Hampshire, New York, Rhode Island, and Pennsylvania, either by protest or declaration, on the provision that Congress might "by law at any time make or alter" the State regulations as to "the times, places, and manner of holding elections," was that it would take effect only when, to use the language of the Massachusetts convention, presided over by Hancock, "a State shall neglect or refuse to make the regulations therein mentioned, or make regulations subversive of the rights of the people to a free and equal representation in Congress." It was, in short, they thought, a power only to be used in case the State governments refused to hold Federal elections or converted them into a farce. It was never supposed that the Federal authority would undertake the police power of seeing that the elections were fairly conducted, by actual inspection, and even by the creation of a sort of drum-head tribunal for trying the qualifications of voters.

Of the impolicy of the bill, for any other purpose than creating sufficient disturbance and disorder at the South to revive the Southern question in Northern politics, and divert attention from questions of administration and taxation, there can be little doubt. By far the smallest part of the suppression of the negro vote occurs at the polls. The bulk of it, in so far as it exists at all, takes place long before the election, through the influence of the rich on the poor, of the creditor on the debtor, of the employer on the laborer, of the landlord on the tenant. No power the law can create can interfere with the operation of these influences. The Federal supervisor will be no more able to check or counteract them than to stop the tides. What his presence at the polls will do will be to produce continual exasperation and irritation and disorders, and probably to strengthen such arts of coercion as the whites now use in preparation for the election.

SPEAKER REED'S ERROR.

THE anonymous article under this title in the July number of the *North American Review* has attracted much attention, but not more than its merits as a piece of pure ratiocination warrant. It has been ascribed (erroneously, we think) to the pen of Secretary Blaine, and has been printed in the *Congressional Record* as part of the speech of a member of Congress. It is signed "X. M. C." It is so far above the average production of the Congressmen of the present day in dignity, force, research, and literary finish that curiosity is considerably piqued to know who the author may be. To every impartial reader of it, the thought will promptly come that this ex-member of Congress ought to be reëlected, no matter which party he may happen to belong to.

Speaker Reed's error, according to this writer, consists in substituting the new rule (No. xv., clause 3), which authorizes the Speaker to count a quorum by eyesight when the yeas and nays do not show a quorum, in the place of the old rule (No. viii., clause 1), which requires every member to be present unless excused, and to "vote on each question put." The latter rule has been in force from the beginning of the Government to the present time. It is now in force, just as much as Rule xv., and it is optional with the Speaker and the majority of the House to have recourse to it at any time. Speaker Reed's error is really two-fold: it was an error to have adopted Rule xv. at all; it is an error to neglect and supersede Rule viii., as he habitually does. "Speaker Reed," says the writer, "is the first author of any code of law, parliamentary, municipal, or public, who deliberately inserted a mandatory rule on one page, and then on the next page inserted a mandatory rule making proclamation that no one need obey the first." The only example of this kind in literature (he continues) is that of *Dogberry*, who ordered the watch to comprehend all vagrom men and bid them stand in the Prince's name, but, if they would not stand, to let them go and thank God they were rid of a knave.

The capital point made by the writer of the article against the Speaker's new rule and practice is that the Constitution requires a two-thirds vote to override a Presidential veto, and also requires that the vote shall be taken by yeas and nays. There can be no House to do any kind of business that has not a quorum. What evidence can the President rely on to show that there was a quorum present—*i. e.*, that there was any real House in session when his veto was considered? If the yeas and nays together amount to a quorum, and if two-thirds of them are recorded as voting to pass the bill notwithstanding his objections, that is sufficient. But if the yeas and nays show less than a quorum, he will be justified in saying that the bill has not passed. "But," replies the Speaker, "I saw enough members inside the bar to make a quorum." "That is nothing to me," the President might reply; "the Constitution has for me three things, and only three, viz., quorum, two-thirds, and yeas and nays. Your rules do not apply to me. I am not a member of your body. I cannot know any rules except those which the Constitution has laid down." Under such circumstances would the bill be a law or not?

This is a crucial test. If Speaker Reed's rules will not apply in this case, they must fail everywhere. There cannot be two kinds of a quorum for legislative purposes, one kind for ordinary use and another kind for passing bills over a veto. The President's approval is as essential to the validity of an act as its passage by House and Senate,

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except that, in the event of a veto, both houses shall have a quorum present, and two-thirds shall vote by yeas and nays (and not otherwise) to pass the bill. The question is whether the President is *bound* to accept other evidence than the yeas and nays of the presence of a quorum. Congress has no means of interpreting the Constitution for the President. They are coördinate and equal in this behalf. Taking the most favorable view of Speaker Reed's position, we have here the seeds of a conflict respecting the validity of laws—a conflict fraught with the gravest consequences, and one which has hitherto been undreamed of in our frame of government.

There are, the writer points out, several other cases where a two-thirds vote is required to do certain things—four in the House and six in the Senate. Two-thirds are required to propose an amendment of the Constitution to the Legislatures of the States. What evidence can the States rely upon to satisfy them that two-thirds of both houses have proposed an amendment? "That two-thirds of a quorum should actually vote is as imperative as that the number of States ratifying shall be three-fourths of the States in the Union. The philosophy of the Speaker's rule would not require three-fourths of all the States. If only four States voted and three of them supported the amendment, Speaker Reed, if he adhered to his logic, would be compelled to declare the amendment adopted."

This is but one of the applications of the *reductio ad absurdum* by which the writer in the *North American* utterly demolishes the Speaker's position. The question what shall be done in case the minority refuse to vote is easily answered. In the first place, the Government has been carried on upwards of one hundred years, in peace and in war, without any need of counting a quorum. But supposing that we have fallen upon evil times; supposing that we are in a worse plight as regards the conduct of public business than we were in *ante-bellum* days, when the fierce passions engendered by slavery were rampant in both branches of Congress; supposing that party spirit runs higher now than it did when Sumner was bludgeoned by Brooks, and when Potter and Pryor were on the point of spilling each other's blood, so that it is really necessary to take extraordinary steps now in order to get on at all. What would it be possible to do instead of "counting a quorum"?

The writer suggests the enforcement of Rule viii. The House can compel the attendance of absent members; even a minority can do that. "Compel" is a strong word. It has no limitations. Any absent member can be dragged to the House on a hurdle if need be. But the difficulty, it is said, is not in getting members into their proper places: it consists in getting them to vote. But Rule viii. says that they "*shall vote* on each question put." What does that imply? It means that if they do not, they may be punished for disorderly behavior, under Article 1, section 5, clause 3 of the Constitution. A fine of $50 for each refusal to vote would be a very moderate punishment. Such a fine, cumulative for repeated offences, would be effective, and would probably never need to be exacted. But the power of the House to punish disorderly behavior—and certainly any deliberate infraction of a rule is disorderly behavior—is not limited to pecuniary penalties. In fact, there is no limit to it, except that the punishment must not be "cruel or unusual."

The conclusion upon the whole matter is that Speaker Reed has devised a plan, for his own temporary convenience, which will not bear the constitutional tests applied to it, and which, therefore, puts in jeopardy all the acts passed by "counting a quorum." He has done this without attempting first to enforce a rule as old as the Government itself, which has never been found wanting in any case where it has been invoked. One of his newspaper apologists has sought to excuse him by saying that he has simply followed the line of least resistance in his endeavor to get the public business transacted. If that were true, it would prove nothing as to the legality of the proceeding. It might be the line of least resistance to throw his mallet at the head of any member whom he conceives to be obstructing business. But the question whether counting a quorum is the line of least resistance or the line of most resistance, is yet to be determined.

THE MYTHOLOGY OF SILVER.

WE find in the speech of Senator Cockrell of Missouri, on Wednesday of last week, when the Silver Bill was under debate, the following eloquent passage:

> "You say to the silver to-day, bound hand and foot, bucked and gagged, and upon its back as a mere commodity, 'Stand up like a man beside your gold dollar that has been endowed by law with free coinage, absolute legal tender, and an equality between coin and bullion.' You might just as well say to a twin brother of two great athletes, who has been bucked and gagged, and bound hand and foot, and prostrate on his back, 'Stand up by the side of your twin brother here and show yourself a man,' as to say to silver, bucked and gagged, and cast down as it is, 'Stand up on an equality or parity with gold.' No metal on the face of God's green earth could lie bound and gagged as it is by legal prescriptions and be on an equality with any other. It is an impossibility."

It appears to be impossible for the silver men to understand that money is a tool which enables men to exchange their products and services with the least possible friction, being analogous to a wheelbarrow, a wagon, or a railroad car. Without money we should be obliged to trade by barter, just as, without conveyances, we should be obliged to carry goods on the backs of animals, or on our own backs. The history of money shows that mankind arrived by progressive stages at the knowledge of what things would best serve the purposes of a medium of exchange. Cattle, skins, shells, iron, copper, tin, silver, and gold were tried successively, some in one country and some in another, just as pack-saddles, wheelbarrows, wagons, and railroad cars have been tried for the moving of goods.

It is not so very long since tobacco was the prevailing currency in Maryland, Virginia, and the District of Columbia, and was legal tender for many purposes. It is within the memory probably of some persons still living that 'coon skins were the money of a large section of the Western country, including that portion now represented by Senator Cockrell. Cows were once legal tender for taxes in Massachusetts. Now, let us imagine a Senator from Virginia breaking out in this way: "You say to the plug of tobacco to-day bound hand and foot, bucked and gagged, and upon its back, a mere chew, 'Stand up like a man beside the ten-cent piece that has been dignified with the Government stamp.'" Or this: "You might as well say to a 'coon that has been bucked and gagged, and bound hand and foot, and prostrate on his back, 'Stand up by the side of this legal-tender cow and show yourself a man,'" etc., etc. Not a whit more absurd would it be to exclaim in Senator Cockrell's frenzied way: "You say to the wheelbarrow to-day, bound hand and foot, bucked and gagged, and upon its back, a mere conveyance, 'Stand up like a man beside the railroads that have been endowed with public lands and pampered with refrigerators and Pullman cars.' No handcart on God's green earth could lie, bound and gagged as it is, and be on an equality even with a two-horse team."

How it comes about that so many Americans, ordinarily sane, invest with human or divine attributes any paper or metallic thing of which money is made, is one of the mysteries of the modern world. We find nothing like it in Grecian or Roman mythology. Nor do we recall any instance in which a Hindu or Chinese or African native has personified the raw material of which his idol or fetish is made. That peculiarity belongs to us. It is not fully agreed, however, which sex silver belongs to, although the majority incline to the female. Senator Cockrell speaks of it as a twin athlete, like Castor or Pollux. The late Senator Beck looked at it as an abused woman, something like Niobe. Mr. Dana Horton speaks of it in a general way as an orphan, sex not indicated. The *Silver Dollar* newspaper, published at Cleveland, argues strongly that silver has been deprived of its "constitutional rights." This would imply the male sex, and it raises the question why silver has not brought suit to recover them.

One thing the mythologists of silver have strangely forgotten to mention, and we think they ought to be reminded of it before the sentiment of patriotism is wholly dead. Senator Oglesby of Illinois once eulogized the paper dollar as our ally and friend in the darkest hours of the war. It never deserted us. The more gloomy our prospects were, the closer it stood by us. It was "battle-scarred and blood-stained." The eloquent Senator invested it with the bravery of Mars and the wisdom of Minerva, leaving us in some doubt whether the rebellion was put down by Gen. Grant or by Gen. Greenback. Now where, in this dark hour, was Silver? Did not he (or she) abandon us in the time of trial? Was not he (or she) a deserter? Did not he (or she) join hands with gold, and

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flee across the ocean, seeking refuge among the aristocrats and rebel sympathizers of England and France? Ought not he (or she) to receive thirty-nine lashes and be drummed ignominiously out of the camp? Let Senator Ingalls answer this question, since he it was who once publicly castigated gold for its dastardly conduct during the war.

RAILROAD PASSENGER FARES.

THE zone system of passenger tariffs which originated in Hungary bids fair now to modify the passenger charges on all the railways of continental Europe. The system, in brief, is one of group rates, the same fare being charged to all towns within the zone. For journeys from 140 to 457 miles (the longest journey in Hungary) the fare is the same to all stations, as if the Albany fare were charged from New York to all the cities along the New York Central as far as Buffalo. The result in Hungary is a reduction to all short-distance points, and a very large reduction for long-distance travel. These zones are made by circles drawn from Budapest, the capital, as a centre, the reduced fares applying only to and from that city. A passenger going from one village to another through the capital must buy two tickets. All special tickets are abolished, and all baggage carried is a special charge.

When we begin to reason about American passenger reforms from this Hungarian experiment, we do injustice to our own railroads unless we take the greatly different circumstances into account. Prof. E. J. James of the University of Pennsylvania, for example, prints in the new quarterly, *Annals of the American Academy*, a review of the zone system, with comments upon America, which are very misleading. One sentence is, "The fare [under the zone plan] from New York to Philadelphia would be thirty-two cents." This is without excuse. As before stated, an important part of the Hungarian system is the great reduction in journeys over 140 miles. Prof. James has taken the rate per mile for the longest and (comparatively) cheapest trip and applied it for ninety miles, which is the very thing that Hungary does *not* do. Then, again, he has taken for comparison the lowest-class fare in Hungary—a train with board seats and at slowest speed. It is true that at the end, not of his article, but of the translation of the Hungarian tariff appended, there is a note saying that the extreme rates used for comparison are for third class, with no free baggage; but, being without cross-reference, this looks like an afterthought. Let us see how the New York-Philadelphia rates really compare, taking the Hungarian station about the same distance from Budapest (ninety-five miles):

Hungarian.	Slow trains.			Express trains.		
	First class.	Second class.	Third class.	First class.	Second class.	Third class.
Former fares.....	$3.72	$2.60	$1.84	$4.32	$3.04	$2.16
Present fares.....	2.00	1.60	1.00	2.40	1.92	1.20

The price of an excursion ticket to Philadelphia (from New York and return) is $4, a single-trip ticket being $2.50. Looking at the express trains, it is seen that the old fare of $4.32 first class is higher than the American road's, and that the reduction now brings the fare to a little below the Pennsylvania charge, if we add to the latter's ticket 50 cents for a Pullman seat; though if the Hungarian took a trunk, it would make the prices about even. But the advantage of the new plan lies in the third class, for a poor man can now travel in Hungary a distance equivalent to that between New York and Philadelphia at $1.20, if he will put up with inferior accommodations, yet on a fast train.

The principle of cheaper travel for poorer people is the key to the whole question of passenger reform, whenever it can be applied. The great increase in the quantity carried, and the relative profitableness of our railroad tonnage, come primarily from our ability to discriminate between silks and pig-iron and from our charging upon each its own rate. Dear and cheap freights are carried at separate charge often in the same car, while trade in each is stimulated to the advantage of both merchant and carrier. Obviously we cannot ask a traveller what a journey is worth to him and charge him accordingly, for people cannot be treated like merchandise; yet an approach to this has already been made. Our limited Chicago trains charge $28, while the same trip in another and slower train costs $18 or $20. In England the same fast train carries first-class passengers at three cents per mile and third-class passengers at two cents. The result there and on the Continent has been that the entire increase of recent years is in third-class travel. In other words, comparatively the same number of high-priced tickets is sold, while the number of cheap-fare passengers is capable of great yearly growth, though generally for short distances only.

Upon this matter Prof. James has a word: "The American people," he says, "reputed to be the most restless in the world, has not nearly as many passengers per head of the population as England, and is far exceeded in the number of passengers to mile of railway by half-a-dozen countries in Europe." But the implication against America is unwarranted. Take Great Britain: The United States, omitting Alaska, in round numbers has twice the population, eight times the railroad mileage, and thirty times the area. Is it not rather to our credit that our railroads are four times longer, proportionally to population, than in Great Britain? We have one mile of railway to every 400 of the population; in Great Britain and in Europe it is about one mile to every 1,800 persons. Does Mr. James expect 400 people to travel on the average as often as 1,800? The fact of our much larger territory has, too, an important influence upon our passenger problems. Strange to say, in spite of having thirty times the number of acres, the average length of the railroad journey in the United States (twenty-six miles) is not quite twice that in Great Britain, thus showing that it is to the short-distance travel we must look for any large increase.

General-Manager Findlay of the London and Northwestern presented an elaborate paper on English traffic, with statistics, to the International Railway Congress last year in Paris. His conclusion is: "As regards long-distance traffic, I do not believe that the reduction of fares or any other concessions tend materially to increase the volume of business; as a rule, people do not take long journeys unless from actual necessity, and in that case they will travel, whatever the fare may be, within reasonable limits. Of course, this remark is not intended to apply to traffic between large towns and seaside and other holiday resorts, this being a case in which, by judicious concessions, a traffic is created which could not otherwise exist." A long journey in Great Britain would be, say, as far as from New York to Buffalo or Pittsburgh, 444 miles. Our American railroad managers agree with Mr. Findlay in thinking that large reductions in long-distance fares would not increase the number of passengers correspondingly, though it must be confessed that the Hungarians are ahead of us in the opportunities for cheap travelling. This is the traffic in the United States which, in the words of the English manager, "can be created" to a greater extent than at present exists, and it is to this that our American railroad men should seriously address themselves.

GERMAN COMMERCE WITH SPANISH AMERICA.

THE expansion of Germany's foreign commerce since 1870 has long been known in a vague way to be especially marked in the case of her South American trade. The ubiquity of German commercial travellers has been a subject of remark by South American tourists, and an occasional specific account of the increase of German commercial relations with this and the other country has been made public, such as Consul Baker's striking showing, in his last annual report, of the advance of German interests in the Argentine Republic; but a full survey of the whole subject has been wanting. It was reserved for Dr. L. Francke to furnish this, and he did the work in a late number of the *Zeitschrift* of the Royal Bureau of Statistics of Prussia. Indeed, he covered the whole field of Germany's foreign trade, under the somewhat warlike title, "The Duel with England and France in the Markets of the World." His method throughout is to compare the position of the three great exporting countries in any individual market, by means of tables extending over several years; and some of the more important of his showings, as respects the South American trade, we adduce below.

It is only since October 15, 1888, that Hamburg and Bremen have been included in the Imperial *Zollgebiet*, and only since that date, accordingly, that there have been consolidated statistics of German foreign trade. As Dr. Francke's survey lies almost entirely anterior to that customs unification, he is obliged to give the returns for Hamburg and Bremen separately. The exports of Ger-

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many in general to Mexico and Central America are thus set forth:

1880	2,173,000 marks
1882	3,442,000 do
1886	4,035,000 do
1887	4,531,000 do

The trade of Hamburg with the same countries doubled in the same period, 1880-87, while that of Bremen remained nearly stationary.

The point of Dr. Francke's article is the greater relative gain of Germany compared with England and France, and (in the case of South American commerce) the United States, and this he proceeds to show, for the countries alluded to, by giving the figures of the rival exports as follows:

	Great Britain.	France.	United States.
	Pounds.	Francs.	
1881	1,690,000	23,800,000	$13,320,000
1883	1,620,000	23,800,000	11,000,000
1885	870,000	18,300,000	6,860,000
1887	1,180,000	23,100,000	9,240,000

Thus, while Germany's exports to the republics in question were doubling, those of her competitors were either barely holding their own or distinctly declining.

A similar comparison is next made for South America. Proceeding as before, the general exports of Germany are given as below:

1881	26,638,000	marks.
1883	37,313,000	do
1885	34,366,000	do
1887	50,016,000	do

Meanwhile, the exports of Hamburg to South America increased more than 40 per cent., and those from Bremen about 30. Turning now to the corresponding exhibit for Germany's rivals, we find it to be this:

	England.	France.	United States.
	Pounds.	Francs.	
1881	17,360,000	264,200,000	$26,470,000
1883	18,550,000	256,700,000	30,430,000
1885	15,370,000	212,700,000	25,280,000
1887	19,650,000	280,400,000	28,610,000

Here, too, Germany is gaining much faster than the nations she has to compete with.

The reasons assigned by Dr. Francke for this wonderful quickening of his country's foreign commerce are mainly the impetus given by the unification of Germany, her superior technical education with its results when applied to the leading manufacturing industries, and the persistence and shrewdness with which she has sought entrance to foreign markets. The last causes mentioned have certainly been of great power, as much concurrent testimony could be adduced to show; but we fear they will appear wholly inadequate to our own demonstrators of the way to get a foreign commerce. To them the German idea that the way is to make goods better and cheaper than your competitors, and then make intelligent and sustained attempts to sell them, must appear simply ridiculous. Something like pain will be caused them, too, to be told that Dr. Francke makes absolutely no mention of steamship communication as a means of building up foreign commerce, although we well know, for we have been told it again and again, that German subsidies are the sole cause of German trade abroad. There may be a deep conspiracy here, to deceive the American people and still keep them from the enjoyment of subsidies, though more likely it is only another proof of the essentially plodding and unstatesmanlike type of the German mind.

Dr. Francke speaks rather hesitatingly of the probable effect of the increasingly protective policy of Germany upon her foreign commerce. As his examination was brought down no later than 1888, the influence of that policy had scarcely had time to show itself in the returns. He says it is too soon to judge of the precise effect, and expresses the somewhat perfunctory and evidently forced hope that it will be found possible to retain exclusive control of the home market, and at the same time go on enlarging foreign trade. It would be interesting to know what he would say of the statistics for 1888 and 1889, which show a great falling off in Germany's foreign commerce, and a corresponding gain for both France and England, and whether he would agree with those French and English economists who maintain that such a result was only to have been expected from the advancing German taxes on raw materials and provisions.

FOUR EDUCATIONAL MEETINGS.

THE meeting of the National Teachers' Association at St. Paul which closed on July 11 was perhaps the largest ever held, nearly 12,000 teachers from nearly every part of the country having been present. The programme, too, was on the whole perhaps the most meritorious. In the National Council, a select body of leading educators which met at St. Paul the preceding week, the value of the new plan was very apparent. Select committees report on standard topics once in three or four years, and the practice of presenting a vast body of opinions, more or less systematically collected from all parts of the country, has become the rule in the proceedings of the Council. In the Association itself the numbers have become too large for effective joint meetings, and the best papers are to be found in the departments. The chief interest in the national meeting last year centred in the discussion of religious training by Mr. E. D. Mead and Bishop Keane of the Catholic University; and this year the parochial question, which in two States has grown so hot as to dissolve party affiliations, was brought to the front by Bishop Ireland—forced, it is said, upon President Canfield by the local authorities. There is, however, need of much more specialization and organization before the greatest possible good can be derived from so vast a meeting. The great fact most strikingly impressed upon every competent observer was the superiority of the Western over the New England teacher in professional interests and wide professional reading and intelligence, not to say also in physique.

The American Institute of Instruction is composed of New England teachers, and met this year for the sixty-first time for four days at Saratoga. The chief papers were those by T. W. Bicknell, advocating a high-grade normal school in Boston for graduates of colleges intending to enter upon high-school work. This plan was devised by the Massachusetts Board of Education, but action upon it was deferred by the Legislature till next year. The plan is warmly supported by many leading Massachusetts educators, while it has been vigorously opposed by the State Superintendent and by normal masters. Another important paper was by the Boston Superintendent, Mr. E. P. Seaver. His plan proposes that the State should favor the establishment of departments of pedagogy in Massachusetts colleges, particularly female colleges, by paying to the college $200 or $300 for every graduate in pedagogy who passes a State examination. This, he believes, would accomplish better results than Mr. Bicknell's school. The third plan was presented by Dr. Stanley Hall, and was more modest and inexpensive. It involves a collection of select educational books and journals, English and European, in a central location in Boston, kept by a curator who should lecture on Saturdays, employ other lecturers, take apprentices, etc., and gradually develop a course of pedagogy to meet various needs. Special attention was called to the fact that the new course announced for next year at Clark University could not possibly meet any of the ends sought by any of the three plans proposed. The other papers were good—in fact, there was not a bad one—but the chief interest at this session of the Institute centred on the training of teachers.

The New York State Teachers' Association held its annual meeting in Saratoga during the week beginning July 6. An excellent address was delivered by President Seth Low and another by Prof. N. M. Butler of Columbia, where new departures in psychology have just been made and others in pedagogics are impending. Perhaps the chief feature of the meeting was the address of Judge A. S. Draper, State Superintendent of Schools, outlining from many original sources the history of the State school system. The other chief topics were a plea for closer relation between the university and the school, school training for political duties, and school reading. A striking contrast between the New York and the New England (Saratoga) meeting was often remarked. The New York teachers were mostly men, and therefore more permanent in their vocation and more serious and interested in it. Three long sessions each day were held, and nothing but educational work was presented. At the New England meeting three-quarters of the attendants were women; there were two quartets, organ music, recitations, and other diversions, to say nothing of repeated picnics, receptions, etc., and but two sessions a day were held. To plead for the pro-

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fessional education of teachers in such a meeting is a little difficult. The President deserves all praise for handling his piebald programme, which was no doubt necessary under the circumstances; but the New Englanders should not again meet where such comparisons are challenged.

Most important of all these meetings in a sense was the Regents' convocation in the Albany Capitol. The admirable historical address of the new Chancellor, George William Curtis, was made to a distinguished audience, and was one of his best utterances. In New England, college presidents and faculties associate once a year to discuss common interests, but with very great reserve. In New York most of the colleges of the State were represented at the Regents' meeting, and even so sensitive a question as degrees was fearlessly and publicly discussed. It was moved that hereafter only universities with an income-bearing fund of half a million be allowed to give degrees, and it was suggested that two or three of the oldest and most valuable of the sixty academic degrees now conferred in America be selected by the Regents for their especial supervision and control. The existence and powers of this Board of Regents give to New York an opportunity and a responsibiiity possessed by no other State. With the cordial coöperation of Columbia College, which we trust is now assured, as well as of Cornell and the very vigorous State Superintendent, we may fairly look for very rapid educational development in New York.

From all this pooling of educational opinions the following seem to be indisputable facts: (1.) In New England, intermediate or secondary, if not primary, education is falling not only relatively but absolutely behind the West and the Middle States. This we believe to be due to the greater age, complacency, and unprofessional qualifications of the city and State superintendents in New England. (2.) At all these meetings the necessity of reform in normal training and the fundamental necessity of better qualification for teachers were emphasized. (3.) College and university presidents who have rarely attended these meetings were present; the heads of nearly all the best institutions in the country being in attendance, if not on the programme. When we reflect how the choicest educational influences work from above downward, this is not without its significance. (4.) What is most important of all is the fact of the astonishing broadening and deepening of all educational interests within the last two or three years. Never in the history of this country has there been so much unsettlement in all educational grades. This means exceptional opportunity, and no one can doubt that very great changes are impending

POSSIBILITIES IN EASTERN PERU.

IQUITOS, March 22, 1890.

IT is often more easy to enter a South American town than to effect an exit. It is almost impossible for the agents in charge to secure the departure of steamers on schedule time. Obstructions arise on every side—from officials whose correspondence is "not ready," from merchants who "will have more cargo to-morrow," from others who desire to force the companies to accept freight and collect charges from the consignee. By making these and other representations to the Captain of the Port, the citizens can usually induce him to withhold the "despatch" without which the steamer dare not depart. Accordingly, passengers booked for the voyage are obliged to live in a state of expectancy, with baggage packed, for days before finally setting sail. After an excited contest between the agent and the obstructionists, the *Mujú* got away from Iquitos four days after her advertised date for sailing.

This venerable craft possesses a history in which Americans may justly take a patriotic pride. She was built in Philadelphia for the "*Companhia do Pará é Amazonas*," now defunct, and, under a succession of different owners, has been in active service in this most trying of climates for twenty-three years! The same timber is in her to-day as when she was first built, and she is in as good condition as any vessel of English make which has been in the Valley of the Amazon as long as seven years. The assertion is often heard in tropical countries that none but the English can construct vessels which will hold together under the severe tests to which the heat and moisture of such climates subject them. One reason assigned for this is that they employ teak, an East Indian wood unobtainable by Americans; but in the face of all this exists the fact that the oldest boat on the Amazon was built in the United States, and that, with the exception of her iron hull, the material used in her construction was none other than Georgia pine (*Pinus palustris*, known in various sections of the country as yellow, hard, or long-leaved pine), which, by reason of being so heavily charged with pitch, has been found to last three times as long as teak.

The *Mujú* makes regular monthly trips between Iquitos and Yurimaguas, which latter town is at the head of navigation on the Rio Huallaga, about 100 miles from the Amazon, and 500 miles west-southwest from Iquitos. It was sunset when the lines were cast off from the pontoon dock, and the steamer started up the river. The current was excessively strong, and doing our utmost we could only make four miles during the first hour. At this distance we cleared the upper end of Iquitos Island, and, coming into the main channel, made better speed. Almost every foot of space on each side of the long table on the after deck was by this time occupied by the hammocks without which no one travels in this country—white, gray, and red cotton hammocks, with deep fringes hanging down; rich gray and brown chambira hammocks—all loaded with human freight, swinging in unison with the slight swaying of the vessel. It was characteristic and pretty. Outside, the faint gleam of the growing moon caused the vine-draped giants of the tropical forest to display their beauty with the added charm of shadow and sheen of moonlit night. In the woods all was still, save now and then the note of a querulous parrot. Suddenly a concertina or accordion whined the cue to a *cancion*, and in an instant a dozen voices had lifted the strain of "Perla preciosa," a wild, weird, plaintive song of love.

By the following morning the boat had reached Omaguas, a pleasant town scattered irregularly through a grove of sapota and mango trees. The land is rolling, and is not only cleared, but is kept as clean as any Northern farm. Corn was growing in several fields, and in the pastures were herds of cattle and horses. During the day several smaller towns were passed, all having a creditable appearance of thrift. The houses were built of canes and roofed with palm, but such a construction is far preferable to mud walls, which prevent free passage of air. The moisture in the atmosphere is so great that houses built with thick walls are always damp and chilly. Around these little villages, or pueblos, were great varieties of fruits. Oranges grow to perfection. Instead of the lemon, the lime tree is most commonly cultivated, and another intensely acid fruit called cidro, which resembles an orange in shape and size, is very abundant, and is highly prized for making a refreshing drink. The mango, sapota, and guayaba are found beside every hut. The last is often stewed and served as a dessert. The beautiful Pihuayo palm (the Pupunha of Brazil) is universal, and its large red, acorn-shaped, mealy fruit furnishes another highly relished dessert when boiled and floated in syrup. Another fruit greatly enjoyed by all classes is the huava, which looks like an enormous okra pod on the exterior, but contains a series of lenticular seeds thickly enveloped in a substance resembling cotton, which completely dissolves in the mouth to a juice of delicious sweetness. The banana orchard, of course, is a necessary adjunct to every settlement, for this wonderful fruit supplies to a great extent the place of meat, bread, and vegetables throughout the Valley of the Amazon, and coffee of excellent quality is also commonly raised for home consumption. Samples of this coffee tested by experts in New York are reported to equal the finest grades of Rio, and to possess in addition a suggestion of the flavor of Old Government Java.

Every town, or more properly chacra or hacienda (since nearly all are under the sway of a single Don), has its distillery, for the people use aguardiente (fire-water) in amazing quantities. The choicest native liquor is cherry brandy, perhaps the hottest beverage ever made. Orange brandy comes next in favor, while the standard drink of the country is rum of sugar-cane. Vast fields of the cane are cultivated, and all for this one purpose, not a single pound of sugar being produced for domestic use, and only a little, known as *chancaca*, made for strengthening the fermenting liquors. This chancaca resembles the crude sugar from Demerara. Corn, likewise, is only raised for the cattle and for making a beer called *chicha*. In a very few places tortillas and hominy are used, and the flavor of these is so excellent that it is difficult to comprehend the local prejudice which so narrowly restricts the applications of this nutritious grain. At many places were considerable patches of peanuts, *mani*, which serve as an article of food, as chestnuts do in Southern Europe. They are eaten roasted or boiled, and are very generally stewed with meats, in which form they are by no means disagreeable. Lastly, which is of peculiar importance to the Indian, a beer, *chicha de mani*, is brewed from them. To make peanut beer, the fresh nuts are mashed and boiled for several hours. All the liquor is now strained and expressed from the lees, sugar is added, and it is then fermented. At San Regis and several places further west, grapes were growing and apparently doing well. The inhabitants declare that they mature perfectly and bear abundantly, but complain that they require too much attention. The grape, however, demands care in any climate, and it is worth while to remember that down here anything which will not grow by simply sticking a shoot or cutting in the ground is deemed bothersome

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and unprofitable. In a few places, notably at San Lorenzo, near the mouth of the Rio Huallaga, the natives cultivate a little rice, which ripens into a large, plump grain.

The cattle seen at the various chacras would create enthusiasm even in Chicago. There is one breed, mouse-gray in color, which is extremely beautiful, attains a large size, and fattens easily. Cattle are raised here solely for beef, milk never being used. It appears that in the tropics milk is even more likely to be infected with the bacillus tuberculosis than in the North, and so many cases of consumption have been traced to its use that the entire population, with scarcely a single exception, leave it absolutely alone. A few sheep are raised, and multitudes of pigs, chickens, and ducks, together with a great many fowls indigenous to the Amazonian forests which have been domesticated, and even crossed with the older breeds, with good results.

In spite of the evident possibilities for successful farming, in spite of the power which bountiful nature has given the provident husbandman to render himself largely independent of the outer world, the great majority of the East Peruvians *purchase* the common necessaries of life, rather than produce them. They use brown sugar imported from the West Indies, which costs them thirty cents a pound; rice brought from India, at forty cents a pound; canned vegetables from France, inferior to those they could raise in their own gardens; canned meats from Chicago, and flour from Baltimore, instead of having recourse to native corn meal. Then, to pay for all this, they are forced to endanger their lives by exposure in the jungle where they go to gather rubber. It has occurred to three, or perhaps four, men in this region that it would be more profitable and less dangerous to plant orchards of rubber trees on their haciendas. This is the dawning of a wisdom which must in time become triumphant, and bring prosperity and gladness to thousands who shall find homes in this land, where naught is needed but thrift and prudence to turn it into an earthly paradise. Within ten years a rubber orchard may be depended upon to yield a yearly profit of not less than one hundred dollars an acre, even in a so-called dry season, which is a phenomenon that occurs perhaps once every decade. Then, like the olive, the rubber tree endures and yields to posterity through many generations. While the trees are growing, many things can be raised upon the same land which will remunerate the planter. Climate and soil alike are adapted to the culture of henequen, or jute; and coffee, which requires the shade of other trees to perfect its berry, could here be grown under the most advantageous conditions. Hemp is said to thrive well, and the cotton certainly develops remarkable characteristics. Instead of being an annual, as in the North, it grows into a shrub, or small tree, often twenty feet in height, and lives from forty to fifty years, being filled at all seasons with a profusion of yellow blossom and snowy boll.

Peru is proud of her "Montaña," as this vast eastern state of Loreto is called, and she well may be, for already, while there is not a single town or hacienda that is not upon the very banks of the rivers, while the population does not average more than one person to every sixty square miles of territory, and while a careless, thriftless people, too nearly content with mere existence, hold dominion here, the exports amount to upwards of two millions of dollars a year. When the railroad which is now building across the Andes shall have reached this region, and the tide of emigration shall have been turned into it, under the new genius which will then preside over her destinies, the plantations of Loreto may enrich the world more even than the wonderful mines of Peru's famous metalliferous mountains.

At San Lorenzo the steamer turns from the Marañon, or Amazon, into the Huallaga, which stream it follows southwardly, for thirty-six hours, through a region constantly growing more rolling, until the limit of navigation for vessels of six feet draught is reached at the picturesque town of Yurimaguas. This is the beginning of the overland route to the Pacific Coast. The journey is by no means as arduous an undertaking as it is commonly represented. At present it is necessary to go in a canoe a six days' voyage to Balsa Puerto, and thence to walk four days to Moyobamba. From that point a horse-road leads to the coast. The entire journey from Yurimaguas to Pacasmayo occupies from twenty-three to thirty-five days, and costs about $350. An engineer, Señor Perez, is at present laying out a road from Moyobamba to Yurimaguas, so that in a few months it will be possible to ride on horseback from the latter town to the Pacific. Yurimaguas is growing rapidly. The evidence is written clearly in the absence of many old buildings, in the number of new ones, and in the quantity in process of construction. Its population is now reckoned at three thousand, and when the Moyobamba road is opened, it will receive a new impulse of growth. The valley in which Moyobamba is situated is one of the most fertile in Peru. Its climate is that of perpetual spring. It is neither too cold for the fruits of the tropics, nor yet too warm for the cereals and vegetables of the North. In this favored valley are also other large towns—Chachapoyas, one of the ancient centres of Inca civilization, and Tarapota, famous for producing the finest tobacco in the Valley of the Amazon. The inhabitants along the river below Yurimaguas want the productions of this elevated valley, and it is for the sake of these that the new road is being built. All the cargo bound into this valley, and all that bound out of it, will then have to be transshipped at Yurimaguas. It is easy to see what an amount of business must arise at this point.

There is another region almost rivalling the valley of Moyobamba in natural fertility and advantages of climate, into which the steamers do not at present enter. This is that portion of the Amazon, locally known as the Alto Marañon, extending from the Huallaga up to the first cataract, the Pongo de Manseriche, in the eastern range of the Andes. It is now in large part an unbroken and almost unknown wilderness, but at every turn of the great river appear new evidences of its richness, and near to the mountains the land is broken into a series of little valleys whose beauty is almost ideal. Here are untouched resources of Peruvian bark. Here grow both the caucho and the rubber trees, the copal and the copaiba, the sarsaparilla vine and the wild cocoa. Here, too, are forests of the finest cabinet woods in the world. But as for that, the whole of the Montaña of Peru will afford these in almost limitless quantities. In this lies an unusual opportunity for a company of enterprising capitalists. The world already knows of the rich mahogany in these splendid woodlands. But here are likewise the palo de sangre, richer even than mahogany, and the palo de cruz, looking, when quartered, like sandalwood inlaid with imitations of water-plants in ebony. Of equal value, and of deep concern to the engineer, there exist others, particularly the huacupú and pauviní, which resist rotting in wet places longer than creosoted timbers—lasting, in fact, when used as piles and as sills resting upon the damp ground in this climate, for periods of twenty years. To get these timbers to market it is only necessary to make rafts, using the extremely buoyant cedro for the lower courses, piling the heavy timber on top of this, and then tow the whole down to Manáos, Brazil. The cedro could there be sold to be made into packing-cases for rubber, and the more precious woods shipped by steamer to New York—the present freight on timber being only eighteen cents per cubic foot.

From the few hints given in this article, it may appear wise for Americans seeking an extension of their commercial operations to pay some regard to the opportunities offered in eastern Peru. COURTENAY DE KALB.

BARANTE'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, June 26, 1890.

M. DE BARANTE played a not unimportant part in the first half of this century, during the First Empire, the Restoration, and the Government of July. He saw many men and many things; it is a pity that he waited till he was eighty years old before resolving to put in order the notes which he had used in some of his historical works on the Convention, the Directory, and the Empire. He died before he could end his work; the first volume of his 'Souvenirs,' just edited by his grandson, M. Claude de Barante, goes as far as the beginning of the Restoration.

His grandfather, Claude de Barante (1669–1745), was a great Jansenist, and, during the persecution of the sect, he became the legal adviser of the Jansenists in Auvergne. His family was connected with the family of Pascal, who was also of Auvergne. He knew Nicole intimately and worked with him at the 'Epigrammatum Delectus'; he was a great scholar, and translated several Greek works. The father of the author of the Souvenirs was *lieutenant criminel* and *trésorier de France* in the *sénéchaussée* of Auvergne and the *présidial* of Riom. Like most of the *gens de robe*, he was a Liberal; he adopted the ideas of 1789, but was soon alarmed by the excesses of the revolutionists of Paris. It was not long before he was persecuted. He left Riom and retired to the country. He was arrested during the Terror, and conducted from Barante to Thiers. His wife, though on the eve of her confinement, rode to Thiers; she was delivered, before the term, of a daughter, who became Mme. Anisson du Perron. This lady, by the way, died only two years ago. She was much beloved and respected by all her friends, and had much literary culture; she left memoirs of which a part has been published by the Duc de Broglie in the *Correspondant*. The estate of M. de Barante was confiscated; his wife, as soon as she could move, went to Paris, in order to obtain his liberty. She spared no effort and put herself in communication with some of the Deputies from Auvergne. Young Barante, who was a boy at the time, went sometimes to Thiers to see his father in prison; he had to wear a tricolor cap for the occasion, and sometimes heard people sing under the windows of the prison:

"Il faut du sang, il faut du sang
Pour affermir la République."

Mme. de Barante succeeded, almost by a miracle, and through a sort of misunderstanding. She took her husband back to Paris, but never felt quiet till the revolution of the 9th Thermidor sent Robespierre to the scaffold.

Young Barante ended his studies in Paris, at

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a *pension* in the Rue de Berri, which, before the Revolution, called itself "Institute of the Young Nobility." "All felt the influence now of the new times: there was no longer a chapel, a priest; there was no question of the mass or of any religious performance." By degrees, however, things changed there, as they did in the political world. Young Barante was admitted to the Polytechnic School in 1798. This famous school was one of the creations of the Revolution. Its first masters were Monge, Lagrange, Foureroy, Chaptal. Bonaparte reorganized everything; he became, after the 18th Brumaire, an almost absolute master of France. He wanted to change the whole administration. Barante's father was placed on a list of prefects and sent to the Department of the Aude. He went to Carcassonne, leaving his son at the Polytechnic School.

"It is difficult to imagine in what a state of happiness France then found itself. After ten years of anarchy, of civil war, of bloody strife, after the fall of an ignoble domination, public order was reëstablishing itself as if by miracle. The envious, haughty, and defiant aristocracy, issued from the Revolution, had ceased to dominate and to practise its vexations. Honorable men were placed in public office; every day a branch of the administration was regulated, an injustice was cured. Equality before the law, that symbol of French society, received for the first time a tranquil application. A desire for amelioration and national glory was felt everywhere. Youth embraced with rapture such happy hopes. It saw before itself a noble future, and everything excited its emulation."

It is curious to note this state of mind of France delivered from the Terrorists. History can no longer deny that the eighteenth Brumaire was hailed as a deliverance. M. de Barante's anecdotes concerning the society of the Consulate are highly interesting. You may read in Gouverneur Morris's memoirs that Mme. de Staël had been very intimate with Talleyrand during the early part of the Revolutionary period. M. de Barante tells us that when Talleyrand came back to France, after the Terror, his position became insupportable to him; he had no importance and no money, which to him seemed the greatest possible misfortune. One day he said to Mme. de Staël: "My dear child, I have only twenty-five louis left; I can hardly go a month with that. You know that I do not walk and that I need a carriage. If you don't find the means of giving me a suitable position, I will blow my brains out. If you love me, you will know what to do."

Mme. de Staël ran immediately to Barras; she contrived, with much cleverness, to dispose him to call Talleyrand to the Foreign Office. He was not, however, quite decided, and wished to talk to Talleyrand. Then comes the story of a small dinner at Suresnes between Barras and Talleyrand, which must be read in the book. Talleyrand paid court to the most corrupt of men in a way which pleased Barras, and he became the Minister of Foreign Affairs. He resolved from that time never to fall again into a poor and secondary position. With his immense diplomatic talent and knowledge, he became the great negotiator of peace after every war. Mme. de Staël and Talleyrand soon quarrelled, and their friendship ended in a lasting antipathy.

Napoleon's signing of the Concordat with the Pope was a great event; the churches were opened again. It is curious to see how rapidly irreligion had gained ground. The installation of the new bishops had to proceed with great caution. Some cities gave them a bad reception. The military element was hostile to the priests; in some places the mob entered the churches and threw stones at the priests. At the time of the conspiracy of Cadoudal there was a new sort of terror: hundreds of priests were arrested by the police. Barante was arrested one day by mistake, and had to be claimed by his chiefs. The execution of the Duc d'Enghien was the terrible answer of Bonaparte to the Royalist conspirators. Barante enters into some important details on the part played in this horrible tragedy by Talleyrand and by the First Consul.

"It is idle," says he, "to try to justify Napoleon. He never manifested the slightest remorse for the assassination of the Duc d'Enghien. Notwithstanding his habit of considering every action and every thought under its different aspects, he did not think, politically speaking, that he had committed a fault. . . . A few days after the death, exasperated by the severity of public opinion, he explained himself on the subject before the Council of State with an anger which excluded all regret. . . . The words which he pronounced were noted down. They are in the Memoirs of Miot."

Bonaparte obeyed the feeling of the Corsican *vendetta*. He thought himself in his right: "They wished to kill me, I have killed them."

The Empire was established by law on the 17th of May, 1804. When the Assembly brought to Napoleon, at St. Cloud, the new constitutional acts, Napoleon merely said: "I accept the title which you think useful to the glory of the nation. I will submit to the sanction of the people the law of heredity. I hope that France will never repent of the honors with which it surrounds my family." The new Constitution established in reality an absolute government. Fifteen years after 1789, France submitted again to the *bon plaisir* under a new form. The genius of Napoleon was her excuse; he saw everything, looked into every detail, his head was clear, his activity unlimited. He left on every part of the French Administration a mark which will be felt for centuries.

Barante was appointed *auditeur au Conseil d'État*. These auditors became a sort of civil aides-de-camp to the Emperor; he employed them constantly in all sorts of missions. His father had become Prefect of Geneva. He went as often as possible to see him, and became intimate with the society at Coppet, with Mme. de Staël and Benjamin Constant. He was sent with despatches to Spain, and was hardly back when he had to go to Prussia.

"There is," says Barante, "no comparison to be made between the effect produced by the battle of Jena and the enthusiasm excited by the victories of Marengo and Austerlitz. Marengo had saved France; Austerlitz had consecrated the establishment of the Empire and glorified the nation. The war against Prussia was universally regarded as having been undertaken without necessity, from a mere desire for glory and for conquest. The Emperor had left his army in Germany; he had manifestly wished that his negotiation with England should have no results; he had formed the Confederacy of the Rhine. Now it was a question of the submission of all Europe, of an Empire of the West, in short of a policy of imagination. Admiration for the genius of the Emperor was still increasing; but the progress of despotism, a consequence of the state of war, was beginning to preoccupy the public mind. Even about the Government, between friends, people were beginning to talk with censure and with affliction."

M. Daru, who was Barante's chief, was a most intelligent man. He was a sort of perpetual hyphen between the populations of Germany, the commanders of the army, and the German princes. "I was reflecting all the time," said Barante, "on the feelings which we should leave behind us, among the Germans, on the instability of our domination, on the vengeance which we might some day suffer from." He represents the generals as completely intoxicated by their victories; Vandamme, for instance, saw the greatest fortresses open their doors to him, almost at his first request. Barante was appointed intendant of Dantzig even before it was quite certain that Dantzig was occupied by our troops. After the formidable results of Jena, Napoleon was drawn to the Vistula, and the whole of Poland was in a state of ebullition. Napoleon was not moved by this exaltation; he said to a Polish deputation, with much coldness: "Gentlemen, this is a serious affair: it is war, with its chances, its dangers, its miseries." He was not ready to help them yet, but the idea of a war with Russia was beginning to occupy his mind. Warsaw became for a time an imperial residence; it was there that Napoleon saw Madame Walewski, but their *liaison* only began to make some noise afterwards.

Barante tells many interesting details about the succeeding events, the negotiations at Tilsit; but he is specially instructive when he talks about his own missions. Daru once said to him:

"'The Emperor the other day, when he was entering his carriage at Koenigsberg, said to me: "You will remain with the army; you will feed it, and you will bring me back 200 millions." I exclaimed. "Well, bring 150 millions," he said. The door was shut and he did not wait for my answer. You see by this that Prussia still owes us 150 millions, and my accounts will prove it. We shall make our calculations to that effect.' I replied quietly to Daru: 'Well, I shall not have to discuss with the people in Silesia, and I shall not have the annoyance of hearing them say that we do not fulfil the promises we made to them.'"

He had, in fact, just received his nomination as sub-prefect at Bressuire, in La Vendée. He was probably not thought sufficiently ardent or unprincipled for the task of a conqueror. He submitted quietly to what was a sort of disgrace, and came back to France. I regret that space does not allow me to follow him to La Vendée; he behaved there with his usual gentleness and moderation. He made the acquaintance of Mme. de Larochejacquelein, and helped her to write her memoirs, which were afterwards published, and which give perhaps the best account of the war in La Vendée.

Correspondence.

MR. HEARN'S PROFICIENCY IN PATOIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Mr. Lafcadio Hearn's book, 'Two Years in the French West Indies,' you say that so admirably has the author rendered his frequent quotations from the French patois, you hardly think you do him an injustice in suggesting that he may have received some assistance from his friend M. Léopold Arnoux of St. Pierre, Martinique. In making this suggestion you overlook the fact that Mr. Hearn published in 1885 (New York: Will H. Coleman) a 'Dictionary of Creole Proverbs,' which he entitled: 'Gombo Zhèbes' (*i. e.*, Gombo aux Herbes). In this little book he gives selections from six Creole dialects, that of Martinique being among the number, and translates them into French and English, at the same time making such a comparative comment on the various dialects as to justify us in inferring that he has a very thorough knowledge of these Creole patois. Mr. Hearn, if not a native of Louisiana, has lived there a good part of his life, and hence has had an excellent opportunity for becoming acquainted with Creole life and patois. But for this he

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could hardly have written so well of the French West Indies.

SAMUEL GARNER.

ANNAPOLIS, MD., July 7, 1890.

TRUE CONSIDERATENESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For several years past I have lived in provincial England. Although so far from home, every now and then a transatlantic blast, pure and undefiled, fans to a white heat the fervor of my patriotism.

This morning, most appropriately to the day, a lady from one of our Eastern cities applied to my landlady for apartments. In the process of telling her that she had no rooms to let, the landlady said that there was an invalid in the house, whereupon the lady exclaimed: "In that case perhaps it is just as well that you cannot take us in, for my little girl, who is thirteen, likes to have plenty of liberty and to *scream* through the house."

Yours very truly, INVALID.

ENGLAND, July 4, 1890.

Notes.

IN a prefatory note to the English edition of Stanley's 'In Darkest Africa,' the announcement is made that the publishers, Messrs. Sampson Low & Co., have in preparation a third volume, uniform with this, to appear in the fall. It is by Mr. Mounteney Jephson, one of the expedition, and will contain an account of his adventures while imprisoned with Emin Pasha by the rebels of the Equatorial Province. The English edition of Stanley's work differs somewhat from the American in having an index to each volume, while the portraits are better, and the maps, instead of being in a pocket, are bound in the body of the work.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have in preparation 'English Prose, from Elizabeth to Victoria,' selections by Prof. James M. Garnett of the University of Virginia; 'Selections from Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales,"' edited by George Lyman Kittredge of Harvard; 'English Poets of the Seventeenth Century, from Donne to Dryden,' edited by L. B. R. Briggs of Harvard; 'A High School Rhetoric,' by John F. Genung; 'Lessons in Rhetoric and Literature,' by Mrs. T. W. T. Curtis and Mrs. Sara E. H. Lockwood; an 'Illustrated Vocabulary to Xenophon's Anabasis,' by Prof. John Williams White of Harvard; 'Hygienic Physiology,' by Dr. David F. Lincoln; 'Topical Outlines of American History,' by Prof. A. B. Hart of Harvard; 'The Leading Facts of American History,' by D. H. Montgomery; 'Reference Handbook of English History,' by W. H. Gurney; 'Political Science and Comparative Constitutional Law,' by Prof. J. W. Burgess of Columbia; and a 'Practical German Grammar,' by George Hempl of the University of Michigan.

J. B. Lippincott Co. desire it to be known that the statement that they have discontinued the publication of non-copyrighted books is entirely false. They have, on the contrary, just completed arrangements with a number of foreign authors and publishers for a simultaneous issue of their works in the United States.

Mr. Moncure D. Conway has written a Life of Hawthorne for the "Great Writers Series," which will be published simultaneously in England and in this country (A. Lovell & Co.).

We have received two thoughtful lectures by Prof. Nettleship of Oxford upon "The Moral Influence of Literature" and "Classical Education, Past and Present" (London: Percival & Co.), which contain a discursive treatment of their subjects, meant for a popular audience, but full of matter for reflection. They have a more or less direct bearing on education, are large-minded and temperate, and betoken the relaxation of the scholastic methods of English instruction, and an aspiration, if no more, to make the body of literature effective in education by its ideas rather than by its grammar and syntax.

A more elaborate treatise to the same end is Prof. Laurie's Cambridge Lectures on 'Language and Linguistic Method in the School' (Macmillan), a laboriously logical analysis and synthesis in educational science, which is too brief to be condensed, but ought not to be neglected by those interested in the theory and practice of teaching. The little work is very lucid in statement and practical in advice. It is revolutionary in its spirit, and desires a reform all along the line in the teaching of grammar in all languages. It insists on the superlative value of the literature which should be the basis of education, on the necessity of an education mainly literary if the object is to induct the child into those ideas and ideals which constitute the moral life of the race, and on the new methods of grammatical instruction which force the child's mind to acquire real processes and power of thought, instead of memorizing half-understood terms of the grammarian's vocabulary, and processes of parsing which resemble the manipulation of Chinese puzzles more than any intellectual act. Prof. Laurie argues with much vehemence and effect. He understands his own theory and its underlying metaphysics perfectly; but here, as in other pédagogic works, the real difficulty is not in approving the better way, but in finding teachers able to understand, to value, and to apply the better way. An interesting minor point is the author's defence of language-teaching where there is no expectation of the pupil's acquiring the language, either for speech or reading, to any really useful degree.

Little need be said about the 'Annual Statistician and Economist' for 1890 (San Francisco: L. P. McCarty). What is new in it is not important, and what is important is not new. It is high-priced, and it is not useful in anything like a reasonable proportion to its cost. It is sold, or offered for sale, at a price as high as that at which the 'Statesman's Year-Book,' and higher than that at which the 'Almanach de Gotha' may be purchased in this country with the duty added. It attempts to cover a much wider field than either of those standard publications, but in doing so it demonstrates anew that the jack-of-all-trades is not likely to be master of any. Little discretion is shown in making up the book. Space is occupied with such things as the list of all the rulers of each country in the world since the days of Romulus, the vote of each county in California at every election since 1849, and the name of every man who has ever been Governor of an American State or Territory. It might have been well enough to print these things and others of a similar sort once, but when they are reprinted year after year, they are simply padding.

The 'Élite Directory' for 1890, published in this city by W. Phillips & Co., raises anew the question of the principle of selection. Those omitted can take a sardonic satisfaction in seeing the names of the more fortunate "misspelled in the despatches." The suburbs are looked after as well as the metropolis, and in the nature of the case criticism will in these small communities be the more searching as regards both exclusions and errors. It would seem a fatal inconsistency to allow any of the Élite to appear only by their surnames, yet dashes abound in place of the distinguishing initials or Christian names.

About five years ago we spoke in very favorable terms of a treatise on the calculus by Prof. James M. Taylor of Madison University. Prof. Taylor now presents the public with a 'College Algebra' (Ginn & Co.). It is almost needless to say to those acquainted with his Calculus that the Algebra is also a good piece of work. It treats all the subjects which in our opinion ought to be included in a college algebra, treats them well, and at the same time is a much smaller book than such treatises usually are. The mere appearance of a 12mo volume somewhat less in length and breadth than the ordinary text-book, and containing only about 300 pp. of rather coarse print, is itself an encouragement to the student.

That indefatigable author of mathematical text-books, Prof. G. A. Wentworth of Phillips Exeter Academy, has just given us a new 'School Algebra' (Ginn & Co.)—not a new edition of his former work, but an entirely new one. There is throughout the book a manifest attempt to attain perfection of form, and to state everything with all possible clearness and precision. The most prominent characteristic of all Prof. Wentworth's books is the great number of exercises and problems, or, as most teachers and all boys call them, "examples," which they contain. In the present volume he has "beaten his own record." The last chapter, "General Review Exercises," contains 154. There are scattered through the work 117 sets of these exercises, containing from 10 to 100 each. From a rough estimate made by averaging several of the sets taken at random, we are certain that there are at least 3,000 examples in the volume, and we should not be surprised if an actual count should bring the number nearer 5,000 than 3,000. The other characteristics of Prof. Wentworth's books are too well known to require comment.

Prof. William Martin Conway is best known for his admirable researches and editorial work in the domain of art, and particularly of wood-engraving, but he is also an indefatigable Alpine climber, as was manifested nine years ago by the publication of his 'Zermatt Pocket-book.' This vade-mecum became at once a model for imitation, and, having long been out of print, has now been overhauled by Mr. Conway, and reissued as the 'Climbers' Guide to the Central Pennine Alps' (London: T. Fisher Unwin). It proceeds eastward from the Great St. Bernard, beginning with the Vélan district, and breaking off at the Theodul Pass. Another volume, which must be deferred till next year, will complete the Pennine chain as far as the St. Gothard; and Mr. Conway contemplates, at a still later period, a Mont Blanc Pocket-book. The condensation of the present volume, and the unprecedented minuteness with which the ground of the climber is mapped in words, must be studied to be believed. They remind us of the qualities of thoroughness and accuracy manifested in Mr. Conway's volumes on the Woodcutters of the Netherlands and on Albert Dürer, and (in connection with such maps as are recommended) they do all that can be done to promote reasonable calculation, insure safety, and indicate the finest views. The members of our Appalachian Club ought alone to absorb the 400 copies to which the edition is restricted, in order to learn how to perform a like if an humbler service for American mountaineers.

Another unpublished book of Victor Hugo's was brought out in Paris on June 17 by the

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house of Hetzel-Quantin. It is called 'En Voyage,' and is a journal of two trips that its author made in 1839 among the Alps and in 1843 through the Pyrenees. The *Temps* says of it (with what seems in some sort a perfunctory civility), that there will be found in its chapters "the same descriptive manner that we have already noted and admired in the 'Rhin,' and more recently in 'Choses Vues.'" Doubtless; and doubtless, also, it is a manner that we liked a good deal more day before yesterday than we do to-day or than we ever shall again.

Not long ago Mrs. Jessie White Mario, the widow of one of Garibaldi's favorite lieutenants, published a life of Agostino Bertani, one of the Italian revolutionists, whose influence was much wider than his fame. A physician of broad education, he early joined the movement for the liberation of his country. A republican by principle and a disciple of Mazzini, he nevertheless refused to accept the rule-or-ruin policy of the extreme Mazzinians. His most notable achievement was the organization of the Sicilian Expedition of 1860. Afterwards, like Bixio and Medici, he held the middle position between the Monarchists and Republicans, and was respected and trusted by both. Mrs. Mario has done well to issue a supplementary volume containing extracts from his writings and speeches ('Scritti e Discorsi di Agostino Bertani.' Florence: Barbèra). Besides purely political speeches, there are able discussions of such subjects as universal suffrage, public education, the admission of women to the bar, the State control of railways, and public hygiene. The parliamentary work of Bertani is a fine illustration of the intelligence with which the best class of public men in Italy have applied themselves to the problems of government.

Spanish-American literary activity in this city is indicated afresh in the 'Poesías' of Francisco Sellén, published by A. Da Costa Gomez. The collection of verse is miscellaneous and of widely varying merit.

The fourth and concluding number of vol. xii. of the *American Journal of Mathematics* comes to us with the title-page and index to the volume. It contains two papers; one of fourteen pages by Prof. F. Franklin, "On Confocal Bicircular Quartics," and one of sixty pages, by Mr. Henry Taber, "On the Theory of Matrices." The titles sufficiently indicate that they can be interesting, or indeed intelligible, only to professional mathematicians. Mr. Taber's paper is a regular treatise, very complete, and of especial interest to those who are acquainted with Peirce's 'Linear Associative Algebra.'

A new *Critical Review* of Current Theological and Philosophical Literature will be founded next autumn in Edinburgh by T. & T. Clark (New York: Westermann), under the editorial conduct of the Rev. Prof. S. D. F. Salmond. It will appear quarterly, and its reviews will be signed.

The *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* (Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.; New York: Christern), opens the number for June 15 with an account of the recent festival of the University of Montpellier which a correspondent has already sketched in these columns. This is followed by the brief but admirable address, on the historic progress of the University, by Prof. Maurice Croiset.

We had overlooked the Quinquennial Catalogue of the Harvard Law School (1817–1889) which appeared at Commencement time; a stout volume of 260 pages, fairly divided between the lists by classes and the alphabetic list. A vast deal of labor has been bestowed upon it, to record death dates and places of residence, with other data. The name of Caleb Cushing stands second on the list of graduates.

Cushing, by the way, with Rufus Choate and Robert Rantoul, forms the subject of a noticeable address delivered some eighteen months ago before the Essex bar, and just printed in the Essex Institute Historical Collection (January–March, vol. xxvi.). The orator was Mr. Eben F. Stone, a graduate, like Cushing and Choate, of the Harvard Law School. Steel portraits accompany the address.

'Meyer's Konversations-Lexikon' at length comes to an end with the close of the seventeenth volume (Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Westermann). Among the general articles of this supplementary volume we remark a list of planetoids discovered during the present century, with names of observers and dates; and a list of pseudonyms in recent literature. The biographical articles added are considerable in number and do much to freshen the work. Americans are represented, for example, by the late Prof. Stowe, A. G. Riddle, the historian McMaster (whose middle name is disfigured as *Bech* for Bach), Horace E. Scudder (the new editor of the *Atlantic*), and John Wanamaker. Of this worthy it is said: "Auch für kirchliche Interessen war er thätig, . . . und spendete ½ Mill. Dollar für die Kosten der Wahl des republikanischen Präsidenten Harrison, der ihn im März 1889 zum Generalpostmeister der Union ernannte." There is an index to topics not revealed by the general alphabet, another to the plates and cuts, and a colored map of the elections to the Reichstag in 1890. The editors, *more Germanico*, will now, instead of resting from their labors, prepare for a new edition. In American matters we suggest once more a special American collaboration.

—Ever since the announcement of Miss Philippa Fawcett's distinguished success at Cambridge, people have been asking why it is that she does not receive the B.A. degree which comes as a matter of course to the Senior Wrangler, and to the long list of Honor and Pass men who stand below him. The feeling that prompts the question is, no doubt, based upon a sense of justice, but the difficulties that lie in the way of the University's giving a degree to Miss Fawcett are unhappily very obvious. To begin with, she is not a member of the University, and her name appears on the Mathematical Tripos list only by courtesy. Harvard College, for the same reason, is debarred from giving a degree to a graduate of the "Annex." It is, of course, a question whether this is not all wrong, and whether women ought not to be admitted as members of both universities. A movement is already showing itself in the English Cambridge towards this end, but it cannot attain it by anything short of a complete revolution of the present university system. There is one complication in the matter which is peculiar to England. A Bachelor of Arts there proceeds in course to his M.A. degree, which involves a right to vote for members of Parliament. Each of the universities is a Parliamentary constituency. It is not likely that Parliamentary suffrage will ever be granted to women in England by any sidewind; while, on the other hand, a B.A. degree which did not lead directly to an M.A. would be but a barren honor. The academic distinction attained by Mrs. Butler and Miss Fawcett opens a question which will perhaps be more worthily treated if it be directly met.

— Not quite beside the name of Miss Philippa Fawcett, whose great academic distinction may perhaps for a long time stand unrivalled, but somewhere near it, room must be made for the name of Mlle. Sarmisa Bilcesco, who has just received from the Faculty of Law at Paris the first doctorate of laws that has been conferred by them upon a woman. Mlle. Bilcesco is described as a tall young woman of twenty-three, *brune*, very pretty, and very shy. She was born at Bucharest, and studied at home under the direction of professors of the Bucharest Faculty, taking at the age of seventeen baccalaureates in science and in letters *maxima cum laude*. To these she added the first piano prize of the Conservatory at Bucharest. In 1884 she proceeded to Paris to enter herself at the Faculties of Letters and of Law. She was received at once at the Sorbonne, and after only some brief delay at the Faculty of Law, and has been pursuing her studies at both, with marked distinction and success, during the last six years. The subject chosen for her thesis as doctor was: "De la condition légale de la mère en droit romain et en droit français." It makes, the *Temps* says, a stout volume of 500 pages, and would have contained 200 more if she had not withdrawn from it a discussion of the question of filiation. Mlle. Bilcesco will return to Bucharest and apply for admission to the bar there, not with a view to practising law herself—"Je suis trop timide," she says—but in the hope of smoothing the way for other women who may wish to try the bar as a means of getting a living; and, at any rate, to obtain a ruling on the question whether women who have passed the same examinations as men will be permitted to plead in the courts. There seems to be no great danger that the bar will be overrun with women if Miss Bilcesco gets a decision in her favor, for she has left behind her in Paris only two other women students at the Faculty of Law.

—Talleyrand's Memoirs are at last to be published, and the long-deferred hope of a multitude of readers in all parts of the world is at the point of being realized. Two volumes of the Memoirs will be published before the end of the present year by Calmann Lévy, and three more will soon follow, completing the work. The way in which the publication has come about is a little curious. On the 29th of May the London *Times* printed a number of fragments of the Memoirs, which were sent to it by its well-known correspondent from the Continent, M. de Blowitz. How these papers came into M. de Blowitz's hands nobody knows, or even if they have been accurately transcribed. One theory is, that they may have come from a collection in the possession of a rascally secretary of Talleyrand's, who is long since dead; another is, that M. de Blowitz, whose memory is remarkable, has been one of the very few people who have been permitted to read the Memoirs, and has carried away these portions of them in his head. At any rate, the appearance of them in the *Times* made a great stir. They were reprinted in the next day's *Figaro*, and then followed at once a multitude of letters and interviews and explanations about the causes and origin of M. de Blowitz's indiscretion. On June 2 the Duc de Broglie, who is one of those having the Memoirs in charge, wrote to the *Temps* to say that both he and M. Chatelain, the other legatee, were entirely ignorant of the nature and origin of the manuscript from which the writer in the *Times* had taken his extracts. Further, that neither he nor his colleague had been moved in the least by what had appeared in print, and that, in fact, the contract with

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M. Calmann Lévy was made more than a month before any portion of the Memoirs appeared in the *Times*.

— Talleyrand's faithless secretary was a certain M. Perret, to whom for more than thirty years Talleyrand had given his entire confidence. He discharged him at last, and from that time on—that is, for the last fifteen years of his life—he was in constant dread of the mischief he might make. Perret could counterfeit Talleyrand's handwriting perfectly, and, as he had taken opportunity upon his discharge to purloin many important papers from the Prince's cabinet, it was easy work for him to make trouble. He could strike out or insert passages at will, or produce whole documents out of new cloth. In the newly published memoirs of the Baron de Barante, mention is made of a special instance of this. At the time of the arrest of the Duc d'Enghien, a report upon the subject was brought in by Talleyrand to the Special Council that was convened by Bonaparte. Perret showed about freely what purported to be a copy of this paper, which put Talleyrand in a most odious position. He would not let either this or his other documents go out of his own hands to be copied, but sought out people of consideration whom he had met formerly at Talleyrand's house, and read them to them, apparently as often and as many times over as anybody cared to listen. M. Pasquier, in fact, heard the D'Enghien report so often that he was able to copy it out from memory, and has inserted it in his 'Mémoires manuscrits.' On his death-bed, Perret seems to have felt some remorse for his conduct, for he confessed that many of his documents had been forgeries, and that especially the D'Enghien report had been seriously altered.

—Not long ago M. E. Naville, who is connected with the work of the Egypt Exploration Fund, wrote a letter to Lord Wharncliffe, the President of the Society for the Preservation of the Monuments of Ancient Egypt, with regard to the royal mummies in the Ghizeh Museum. He thinks that they will not last, and that they have already begun to suffer from salt efflorescence, especially that of Seti I. "The mummies," he said, "have been photographed, studied, measured carefully; it is our duty to transmit them intact to future generations, and not to let them perish for the sake of a few visitors, for whom a well-made cast would answer just as well." He proposed that they be wrapped again in silk, hermetically sealed in leaden coffins, and walled up in one of the chambers of the Great Pyramid where they would be safe from robbers. As regards the method of storing the mummies, it might be better to put them back in their cases, and then they could be left in the Museum. M. Naville feels, as many visitors to the Museum feel, that, after all, these old kings were human beings, and that exposing their bodies to the public gaze, not for scientific reasons but to satisfy mere curiosity, is, even after so many thousand years, a desecration of the dead.

—M. Naville's letter produced some excitement in official circles at Cairo, and Dr. Fouquet, who took part in the unwrapping of the royal mummies, and who made the measurements and medical observations at the time, has now made a new examination of them, and has written a report to M. Grébaut, the Director of the Museum, which was published in the *Journal Officiel* of June 7. Dr. Fouquet says that at the unwrapping of the mummy of Seti I. on June 16, 1886, this efflorescence existed in the same places where it is now seen. Part of the efflorescence was taken off in the presence of witnesses and put in two vials, of which one was given to Dr. Fouquet, and the other preserved in the Museum. A careful microscopic examination shows that the efflorescence is not mould, but scales and crystals mixed with particles of bitumen and fine linen fibre. The chemical examination showed that there was no sesquicarbonate of soda, no nitrate of soda, and no chloride of sodium. "The efflorescence is evidently of a very complex composition, to the formation of which the salts employed in the primitive preparation of the mummy, and the bitumen used afterwards for preserving it, have contributed (for the tomb had been violated, the mummy broken, and subsequently coated with melted bitumen). This matter has formed slowly in the course of ages." Further, attempts were made without the slightest success to cultivate and propagate mould on bits of mummy of the Ptolemaic period, and on bits of mummy-cloth coming from the royal mummies in question. Two mummies found with them at Deïr el-Bahari seemed in full putrefaction, and, on account of the stench, the unwrapping was impossible. They were put away where the air had access to them, when they became gradually disinfected, and are now in good condition. Dr. Fouquet concludes that, in the dry air of Ghizeh, and sheltered from too strong a light, as they are, "they seem in extremely favorable conditions for preservation for centuries." This, of course, does not affect the question of propriety.

PROCONSULSHIP UNDER THE BRITISH EMPIRE.—I.

Thirty Years of Colonial Government: A Selection from the Despatches and Letters of the Right. Hon. Sir George F. Bowen. Edited by Stanley Lane-Poole. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

THE British Empire may, for convenience sake, be divided into two Empires, namely, the Indian and the Colonial Empires. How the colonies of Great Britain are now governed, we may learn from the two volumes of 'Thirty Years of Colonial Government' which Mr. Stanley Lane-Poole has compiled with considerable judgment from the official papers of Sir George Bowen, one of the ablest and one of the most successful of British governors, in present or past times. Like the Marquis of Dufferin and Sir Hercules Robinson, his compeers in colonial administration, Sir George Bowen was born in Ireland. It is, indeed, a notable fact how prolific Ireland has been in producing men of the state and men of the sword among the descendants of the English, Welsh, and Scotch colonists who have in times past gone over as settlers. Mr. Francis Galton should find in the fact of the success of Anglo-Irish governors fresh materials for his studies in heredity. Educated at the Charterhouse and at the University of Oxford, where he gained the distinction of taking his degree in the first class with classical honors, Sir George Bowen is shown by his official papers to have fulfilled the first Lord Lytton's ideal of the scholar and statesman, who alone could fully "appreciate what Bacon calls 'the heroic work of colonization.'" But the future Governor was more than a scholar in the classic languages: he had skill in modern tongues. French, German, and Italian were not sufficient, and he added to his intellectual outfit by learning to speak and to write modern Greek. Fond of field sports, he was enabled, when governing new countries, to undergo the hardships of long journeys in districts which railways had not reached. His geniality of manner and talents for conciliation, his power of hard work, and his strength of will when it was right that he should make a stand, whether against a powerful colonial clique or an ill-informed Secretary of State, all qualified him to succeed as a Governor, and especially, as he would have himself remembered, as a *constitutional* Governor.

It was in educational work that Sir George Bowen was first employed by the Government. At the age of twenty-six he was sent out to Corfu, as President of the Ionian University, to reorganize that institution of learning. His success was such as to gain him the approval of the English Government and the thanks of the Ionian Senate. His work of university reform did not, however, prevent his travelling far and wide among the Greek and Turkish provinces, during which journeys he acquired much information of a practical as well as of an archæological kind. Hence his 'Handbook for Greece,' contributed to Mr. Murray's series, and his 'Ithaca in 1850.' Mr. Lane-Poole says that the latter has been recognized by Mr. Gladstone and other Homeric scholars "as a conclusive identification of that island with the Island of Odysseus." A third book by the future Governor was called 'Mount Athos, Thessaly, and Epirus.' He also contributed to the periodicals of the day.

In 1854 Sir George Bowen was appointed Chief Secretary of the Government of the Ionian Islands, then under a British protectorate, and ruled by a Lord High Commissioner. He seems to have recognized that the protectorate had proved to be "a tough and unprofitable job," as the Duke of Wellington had foretold that it would. While, however, he was for giving up all the other islands to Greece, Sir George advocated, officially, that Great Britain should retain Corfu, with its satellite Paxo. As all the world knows, England, to the joy of the Hellenes, handed over Corfu, along with the other islands, to the care of Greece in 1864. It was while serving in the Ionian Islands that Sir George Bowen married the Countess Diamantina Roma, daughter of a nobleman of an ancient Venetian family, who was President of the Ionian Senate. As the wife of a Governor is a very important factor in the making or marring of her husband's viceregal administration, Sir George was singularly happy in his alliance with a lady who has been recognized as the queen of society wherever her husband has represented his sovereign. When on his wedding tour, Sir George had one day a long talk with Lord Palmerston, who wished to obtain information upon matters relative to Greece and Turkey. In their conversation, the question of Greek pronunciation arose. The Ionian Secretary explained that the modern Greeks pronounce η and υ like the Italian *i*, and that consequently ἡμεῖς, *we*, and ὑμεῖς, *you*, are pronounced identically. "Ah! they confound *we* and *you*, do they?" said Lord Palmerston; "I fear that is not the only way in which modern Greeks confound *meum* and *tuum*." In the same letter from which this anecdote is taken, Sir George relates an experience of Dr. Wilberforce, the famous English prelate, with regard to his examination of a candidate for orders who was the son of an English merchant settled in Greece. "I examined him myself," said the Bishop, "in the Greek Testament, when he used what to me was an unknown pronunciation. 'Oh! Mr. M.,' I cried, 'where *did* you learn Greek?' '*At Athens*, my Lord,' faltered out the trembling candidate."

In 1859, the District of Moreton Bay was cut off from the colony of New South Wales and was constituted into a separate government,

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the new colony being named Queensland, by Queen Victoria herself. This colony now comprises about 670,000 square miles. The honor of being the first Governor of this embryo State was conferred upon Sir George Bowen, who held the position from 1859 to 1868, with high distinction. The new Government started business with fifteen cents in the Treasury. A few nights after the Governor's arrival, a thief broke into the Treasury and carried off the amount named. Money was obtained by borrowing from the banks, and in a short time the public revenues grew to large sums. Queensland sprang into existence with responsible government as its own by birthright, and the Governor was fortunate in having as his first Prime Minister Sir Robert Herbert, the present permanent Under Secretary at the Colonial Office, who is alike distinguished in scholarship and administration. In the early years of constitutional government in the British colonies, ministries are very short-lived. Parties seem to play at turning each other out of office. As the colonists get accustomed to their responsibilities, matters settle down into a more stable condition and governments grow longer lived. But, in Queensland, the earliest ministers were for years left undisturbed in power, and Sir Robert Herbert ceased to be Premier only on his resigning office in order to go to England.

When the Governor had put the public departments in order, he travelled far and wide over the vast colony. His journeys were usually made when the local Parliament was in recess. Hundreds of miles did Sir George Bowen ride on a single such visitation, one day getting over as many as seventy miles in eight hours, with a change of horses. The colonists were, wherever it seemed practicable, urged to apply for municipal government, it being a marked feature in Sir George's character that he would have the colonists educated as far as possible to self-government. In this he differs from many others who govern colonies, and who seem to regard the concession to colonists of power to manage their own affairs as in some way an infraction of their own excellency. Such governors are evidently in sympathy with Sancho Panza, who expressed his preference for a government of blacks, because, if they and he did not agree, he might sell them. The land question, long a burning one in Australia, was settled in Queensland to the satisfaction of the colonists. There was a question as to the portion of the colonial debt which Queensland ought to undertake, on its separation from New South Wales, and this cause of trouble was amicably arranged. Soon a liberal system of education was established in the colony, for Sir George Bowen was always a stanch promoter of public instruction. Railways were laid down, and telegraph wires were carried over the country. The colony was ushered into the world without the cost of a single soldier to the parent State. In the total absence of what Sidney Herbert called the "drum and red-coat system," the Governor appealed to the public spirit of the colonists, and forthwith the Queenslanders combined for defence as citizen soldiers. As a portion of Queensland is well suited for the cultivation of tropical products, the Governor took every opportunity of urging upon the settlers the introduction of cotton and cane cultivation.

In fact, for the time being, Sir George Bowen made the interests of the colony his own. Government House was all the time the head of social life in the colony. A British governor's term of office is as a rule limited to six years. A compliment was paid to Sir George in extending his governorship of Queensland to eight years. After the extension had been granted, a political crisis came about, which found the Governor strong and capable. With the example of the United States greenbacks before them, the Queenslanders, under pressure of a monetary crisis, proposed to issue inconvertible notes, and to make them legal tender, which the banks held would be equivalent to a forced loan upon British capital in the colony. Governors of British colonies are, on appointment, furnished with Instructions even to this day. It may be remembered that at the famous interview between Benjamin Franklin and Lord Grenville, in 1757, when the latter's conversation a little alarmed the former as to what might be the sentiments of the Court concerning the American colonies, so that he "wrote it down as soon as he returned to his lodgings," Lord Grenville stated that *instructions*, when received by the governors, were "the laws of the land; for the King is the legislator of the colonies." The instructions to Governors of colonies in our own age, do not, however, pretend to set aside colonial laws. They are such as colonists themselves, when not heated by party strife, will readily accept as fit and proper. In Sir George Bowen's instructions, he was directed to reserve for the sovereign's approval or disapproval "any bill whereby any paper or other currency may be made a legal tender, except the coin of the realm or other gold or silver coin." Adhering to his instructions, the Governor withheld his assent to the bill—a threat to burn down Government House, and to treat Sir George Bowen "as Lord Elgin was treated at Montreal in 1849," notwithstanding. The Governor's firmness carried the day. A law was passed authorizing the issue of Treasury bills, like the Exchequer bills of England, and the financial crisis was tided over.

From 1868 to 1873 Sir George Bowen was Governor of New Zealand. His predecessor in that proconsulship was Sir George Grey, of whom Mr. Froude gives a pleasing picture in his 'Oceana.' The second New Zealand war, begun in 1860, had not been brought to a close when Sir George arrived. The warlike Maoris, in their native fastnesses, had not been subdued, notwithstanding that at one time as many as 10,000 British regulars, besides the colonial militia, had been in the field. In the absence of roads, the latter were unable to concentrate upon the enemy, while the Maoris, issuing out of the forests in small war parties, chose their own time and place for falling upon the British. The Governor found, too, that almost every leading member of both houses of the Legislature had a native policy of his own. The war, which had for a while been suspended, broke out afresh with the massacre at Poverty Bay. Encircled as he was with difficulties, the Governor had to bow to the decision of the Imperial Government to remove the regular troops. Not a single regiment would the inexorable Home Ministers allow to remain in New Zealand, even though the colonists offered to pay for the privilege of keeping the troops. Sir George Bowen was impressed with many points of resemblance between the Maoris and the Highlanders of Scotland in the first half of the eighteenth century, and bethought himself that the policy of Lord Chatham and Gen. Wade might be adopted in New Zealand, for the settlement of the native question. His Colonial Ministers approved of and acted upon that policy. Friendly natives were employed to make roads and in the construction of public works, and, on the cessation of the war, in 1870, some thousands of Maoris who had not long before been in arms against the colonists were employed in this manner and in garrisoning posts for the Government. Sir George Bowen frankly acknowledges the indebtedness of the colony to those friendly natives, who stood by the English so manfully in storm and sunshine. The Governor's tact in dealing with these people tended to confirm their attachment to the Crown, while his conciliatory management of the natives generally was undoubtedly of benefit to the colony. He showed wisdom in providing for the representation, in the Council and Assembly, of Maoris by Maoris. The general affairs of the colony were not neglected, but were so administered that the Governor left New Zealand with increased reputation.

The Colony of Victoria is beyond doubt one of the most vigorous of the British lion's whelps. With a revenue, including the income of the colonial railways, equal to that of Portugal, and far exceeding that of Denmark, of Greece, and several others of the minor kingdoms and republics of the world, the present is but the forecast of its future grandeur. A remarkable feature in the welfare of Victoria is the fact that, of its whole revenue, as much as a third is spent upon educating the people, from primary education to the means of instruction provided by museums and picture-galleries. Of this splendid colony Sir George Bowen was Governor from 1873 to 1879. On his assumption of office he found the colony in a state of complete tranquillity, such as prevails wherever the people of a country are prosperous. The Governor entertained the colonists, and they, in turn, entertained him. He made speeches upon public questions, and played the part generally of a benevolent Viceroy. The shepherd kings were visited by him in their stately homes, while the Mayor and the Town Council of Melbourne, now a city of 400,000 inhabitants, were warned as to the absolute necessity for sanitary measures in the face of an ever-increasing population. The natural advantages of Melbourne were so much in favor of health that the authorities too long neglected to realize the wisdom of their Governor's advice.

After sixteen years' absence from England, without a holiday, Sir George now took leave of absence, sailing for England on the 30th of December, 1874. On the 29th of April, 1875, the Governor of Victoria was entertained in London at a grand banquet given in his honor. Some three hundred persons took part in the fête, many of them of high distinction, and the Duke of Edinburgh presided. As the *Times*, in a leading article, suggested, it was a question whether Sir George should not, after receiving so much honor, have committed the happy despatch, and have left the world in a flash of glory. During his leave of absence the Governor came into contact with many interesting persons. On the Continent he made the acquaintance of Pio Nono and of Victor Emmanuel, of both of whom he has something interesting to tell. In London he was much in request, and had to decline an invitation to dine with the Prime Minister (Disraeli) because he was already engaged to the Archbishop of Canterbury. "How unwise!" said his friend Mr. Lowe (now Lord Sherbrooke). "What possible good can an Archbishop be to a Governor? Oh! I see how it is. You are tired of being a Colonial *Governor*, and wish to become a Colonial Bishop!" On his return to his government Sir George Bowen passed some weeks in the United States, where he evidently enjoyed himself. He also visited Canada. Sailing from San Francisco, which he remarked as not being so handsomely or so solidly

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built as Melbourne, the Governor was back in Victoria early in 1876.

Having left Victoria in a state of political peace, the Governor returned to find it in a state of political storm. The Acting Governor had declined to dissolve the Assembly at the request of the Colonial Ministers, and three successive Ministries had failed to carry on the business of the colony, in the face of a factious opposition. Matters were soon arranged smoothly by Sir George Bowen. But in 1877–1878 a most formidable crisis arose in the political history of the colony. Unlike the struggle in 1875–1876, the later contest was a wrestle between the two houses of the Colonial Parliament, the Council and the Assembly. The question at issue was the payment of members of the Legislature. The law authorizing such payment had expired by effluxion of time. The Assembly wished to continue the system. A majority of the Council was against such continuance. The Council, which, being elected as well as the Assembly, claimed to be "a second House of Commons," threw out the appropriation bill by which provision was made for the maintenance of the Government of the colony. A constitutional dead-lock was the consequence. The Ministers, supported by a large majority of the colonists, not being supplied with the means of carrying on the Government, to reduce expenditure dispensed with the services of a large number of officials. The Council (that is, the majority), trusting to the support of absentees in the old country, who might be able to put pressure upon the Secretary of State, arrogantly required the Governor to side with them. Holding that the question at issue was one of purely local concern, and in no way imperial in its character, Sir George Bowen declined to become a partisan of the Council, and, as a constitutional ruler should do, he held himself bound to act on the advice of his Ministers. As ill-luck would have it, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, who had become Secretary for the Colonies, allowed himself to be misled by the absentees in London, persons not in touch with the bulk of the colonists, with the result that the Governor's influence was weakened, while the truculent Councillors received a corresponding amount of encouragement. It was only after Sir George Bowen had ceased to govern Victoria that, in a despatch dated May 25, 1879, Secretary Hicks-Beach plainly laid down that the action of the Council had been reprehensible.

Before we follow the Governor to Mauritius, it should be noted that, having always had the closer union of the Australian colonies at heart, he had, during the last two years of his rule in Victoria, so arranged that the neighboring governors met together, as his guests, at Melbourne.

ATHENIAN MYTHOLOGY.

Mythology and Monuments of Ancient Athens, being a translation of a portion of the 'Attica' of Pausanias by Margaret de G. Verrall. With introductory essay and archæological commentary by Jane E. Harrison. Pp. clvi, 635. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

EVERY lover of Greece might well desire the publication of a commentary on Pausanias that should fittingly represent the information which we possess to-day touching the countless subjects treated by the old traveller and mythologist. Monographs and articles we have without number, perhaps in every European language, upon special parts of his work, or special phases of it—even volumes of no mean size; but a comprehensive treatment of the whole still awaits the spirit bold enough to undertake it. Miss Harrison fully comprehends the magnitude of the task when she says:

"To produce an adequate archæological edition even of one book of Pausanias would have been in some respects beyond my scope. Such an archæological commentary would demand a scholar who should be at once philologist, topographer, epigraphist, architect, as well as mythologist and mythographist. My competence, at first hand, is confined to the last two branches of classical learning. My work as regards the other departments has been rather to weigh the opinions of others than to originate my own."

In this volume of nearly 800 pages Miss Harrison has confined herself to the first book of Pausanias, and within that to such parts as relate to the mythology and monuments of Athens alone. This work has already been done in English, with the information of their day, by Leake and Wordsworth, and more recently by Dyer ('Ancient Athens,' 1873); but excellent and extensive as even the last treatise is, the changes which have been wrought during the last seventeen years by excavations in Athens, and by the genius of scholars who have devoted themselves to the solution of its perplexing problems, have rendered a thorough reconstruction of the subject necessary. To this task Miss Harrison has addressed herself with a zeal and ability which all will be glad to recognize.

Qualified by years of study, by experience in writing and lecturing upon various archæological subjects, by long and minute examination of the monuments on the spot, and possessed of a style at once lucid and correct, at times picturesque and striking, she has produced a work which the student of Athenian culture cannot afford to ignore, and which the earnest visitor to the spot will find an ever-present help and stimulus amid the myriad perplexities of opposing theories. Miss Harrison's own contributions to mythological problems will be found to contain many ingenious combinations and solutions deduced from the principle that "in the large majority of cases *ritual practice misunderstood* explains the elaboration of myth"; while in other fields she has carefully ransacked and utilized "Mittheilungen," "Bulletins," "Journals," "Papers," *et hoc omne genus*, till the reader may rest assured that he is put in possession of the latest and most valuable results which have been attained. Above all, she has given us what no one else, perhaps, was likely to do, a systematic construction of the views of Dr. Dörpfeld, Director of the German School, upon the topography of Athens. This gentleman has lectured for several years to his own classes and to English and American scholars during the winter, going about from monument to monument and discoursing, in his lucid manner, upon the problems which these monuments present. Some of his conclusions have been published from time to time by himself; but, amid his busy days, their publication has never been complete. He has now given Miss Harrison leave to use all the material she has gathered from his lips, and he has supplied her with much more; he has even read her proof-sheets and added his corrections. To have incorporated in this way the views of the dominant topographical authority in Athens is an achievement which renders the book unique in its way. One might justly describe it by the sub-title of "The Topography of Athens as revised and reconstituted by Dr. Dörpfeld." Some of the chief points of this may be mentioned.

The Eridanus has generally been identified with one of the branches of the Ilissus quite outside the limits of the city, to the east of the Stadium. Dr. Dörpfeld maintains that it had two sources on the southwest slope of Lycabettus near the Lyceum, flowed westerly through the valley north of the Acropolis, and, passing beyond the limits of the city near the Dipylon gate, emptied into the Ilissus towards the southwest and the Peiræus. This view is based mainly on a passage of Strabo, on the lie of the land, and on some vestiges of an aqueduct following this route. The aqueduct is supposed to have been bridged in ancient days at the crossings, and to have been completely covered in later times. The Sacred Gate which has been pointed out for some years near the Dipylon, is now metamorphosed into the exit of this stream from the walls.

The much-contested Theseum is described as the Hephæsteum mentioned by Pausanias. The so-called Theseum cannot be the temple constructed by Cimon, as proved by architectural peculiarities which set it too late, between the building of the Parthenon and the temple at Sunium. The real Theseum was on the east side of the Agora.

The Agora is not limited to the district north of the Areopagus and Acropolis, but extended round to the west of the Areopagus as far as the proper front of the Acropolis. West of the Areopagus was the "Orchestra" and an Odeum, more properly the Agrippeum, and near the southwest point of this hill was the fountain Enneacrunus, which has often been confused with Callirhoë to the east of the Acropolis. At this western site is to be fixed the rape of Orithyia, according to the earliest version, not by the Ilissus. Between the Enneacrunus and the Acropolis lay the Eleusinium, not north of the Acropolis as usually conceived.

The Pnyx returns to its rights once more upon its native rocks, from which it was dislodged by Curtius. In this Dr. Dörpfeld coincides with the conclusions of Dr. Crow of the American School, whose excavations on the site proved many points of Curtius's theory untenable.

It had been supposed that the Olympieum was originally adorned by ten columns at each end. Dr. Dörpfeld concluded from certain architectural evidence that it could have had but eight. Excavation proved this to be true.

Dr. Dörpfeld's revolutionary theories in relation to the theatre are coming to be pretty well known. In the days of Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, he says, there was no stage, no stone seats, no substantial structure for the scene. The actors spoke from the level orchestra where the chorus sang. This orchestra was circular. Believing this to be the case from comparison of other theatres, Dr. Dörpfeld dug and found remnants of the circular wall of the enclosure still existing under the present walls of the stage structure of Lycurgus.

The Pelasgikon extended from the Asclepieum to the Pan Grotto, and the sacred character of the southern slope, which forbade the construction of buildings upon it, was first seriously infringed by Herodes Atticus when he erected his Odeum there. Dr. Dörpfeld points out a fragment of the Cyclopian wall which bounded this precinct on the east. He has reconstructed the original plan of the Propylæa as conceived by Mnesicles, but abandoned in part for various reasons. He was the discoverer of the old temple between the Parthenon and the Erechtheum, and has waged an uncompromising battle in defence of his views against numberless foes. During the recent excavations on the Acropolis he has found many facts to confirm his belief. One is important. It has generally been maintained that a temple mentioned by Pausanias in the vicinity of the Parthenon belonged to

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Athena Ergane, and was situated directly west of the Parthenon on the somewhat lower terrace. Dr. Dörpfeld asserted that no temple of Athena Ergane existed on the Acropolis: on the contrary, the temple seen by Pausanias was the one which he has discovered. The last excavations have proved that no temple stood on the supposed Ergane terrace, but only a secular building, perhaps the Chalcotheke. No one denies the existence of his "Athena" temple, nor its destruction by the Persians. He contends that it was reconstructed soon after without its peristyle, and continued in use till the time of Pausanias. A strong æsthetic objection to this lies in the fact that, if it be so, the beautiful Caryatid hall of the Erechtheum must have been practically hidden by the temple, standing as it did almost within arm's length. This objection, frequently urged, has driven Dr. Dörpfeld to the answer that the architect of the Erechtheum expected that the old temple would soon be removed, but his expectations were never fulfilled. According to this theory, it was in the opisthodomus of this temple, and not in the Parthenon, that the state treasure was kept.

One of the latest novelties is his removal of the "Limnæ," or Dionysiac district of the "Marshes," from its usual haunts south of the Acropolis, to the northwest part of the city, between the Dipylon and the Agora, connecting it with the Dionysiac Temenos in that vicinity, and with the Eridanus for its marshy character. The argument has not yet been published. It may possibly connect the "Hero Calamites" of Demosthenes, *de Cor.*, 129, the Theseum, and the "Hero Physician" of Demosthenes *Fals. Leg.*, 249, the first of which is said by recently discovered scholia and Hesychius to have been named from the reeds growing about his sanctuary, which was near the Lenæum; and inscriptions relating to the "Hero Physician" have been found in the district now assigned by Dörpfeld to the Limnæ. But all this runs full tilt against the universally accepted interpretation of Thucydides ii. 15, where the Limnæ are set down among the old sanctuaries of the Olympieum, the Pythium, and others at the opposite side of the town. The evidence for marshes in this district at an early period is sufficiently supported by the Codrus inscription.

We may now turn to some points in Miss Harrison's work which may deserve correction in a second edition that ought to come soon. On p. xxvi. she speaks of the arbitration of Cecrops between Athena and Poseidon as probably a late invention of grammarians. She has overlooked Xen. *Mem.* iii. 5. 10, where it is mentioned as a commonplace. Do we know, as stated p. 25, that the Areopagus consisted of 100 members? It was not Athens that lay in ruins after the Peloponnesian war (p. 28), but her walls. An inexactness of expression somewhat similar on pp. 116 and 406 is likely to offend the epigraphist. The date of the Dionysiac monument of Lysicrates is fixed on p. 247, by the archonship of Euænetus, in the year 335 B. C. As a matter of fact, the victory could not have taken place till 334, the latter half of the archonship. In connection with porticos erected adjacent to theatres, the words of Vitruvius are translated, "Behind the scene porticoes should be set up, porticoes like those at Pompei and also at Athens." Vitruvius undoubtedly refers to the portico adjacent to the theatre of Pompey at Rome. For "Archinos, son of Alupetos of Skambon; Menekretaia, wife of Dexikrates, Daughter of Ikarieus" (p. 332) substitute, Archinos son of Alupetos of Skambonidæ; Menekrateia, daughter of Dexikrates the Ikarian. The printer's demon has been at work on p. 283 with unusual malice. In the description of the beautiful relief adorning the proscenium of Phædrus, Miss Harrison is made to say, "Ikarios brings the goat Erigone with the dog; Mæra bears the cakes," for, Ikarios brings the goat; Erigone, with the dog Mæra, bears the cakes. Some other misprints are these: "Ardellos" for Ardettos (p. 232) (should not this be also read on the map for "Hymettos"?); "Olnetor" for Onetor (p. 243); "Nearchmos" for Neaichmos (p. 346); "Lölling" for Lolling, "Pherekides" for Phœnikides (p. 371); "inches" for metres (p. 469); "looking east" for looking west (p. 463); "Soskates" for Sostratos (p. 491); "built" for burnt (p. 466).

In the "Plutus" of Aristophanes, the slave *Carion* does not tell the story of the cure of *Plutus* to his wife (p. 306), but to the wife of *Chremylus*. Thucydides does not speak of the Pelasgikon in connection with the Athenians who came back after the Persian war (p. 537), but in relation to those who flocked into the city upon the invasion of the Spartans at the opening of the Peloponnesian war. "Pausanias" is written on the same page for Thucydides.

Occasionally a fact does not seem to be thoroughly thought out. On page 253 we are told that "The general limits of the precinct [of Dionysus] can be roughly defined, and the precise sites of the two temples seen by Pausanias are, fortunately, known beyond doubt"; on p. 280, that the back wall of the stage of Lycurgus "was built over a corner of the northern wall of the smaller and earlier temple, which must then have been in ruins." If so, it should for the same reason have been in ruins in the time of Pausanias. There are no signs of rebuilding, and yet Pausanias saw two temples, one containing the old Eleutherian image. We are told at p. 516 that the basis of the Athena Promachus on the Acropolis "has been found, and gives a fixed point"; on p. 523, that "it is usually thought that the large basis marked on the plan near to the Propylæa belonged to the statue, but this is not certain." Such a swift unsettlement of opinion on matters of Athenian topography is not confined to our author. Perhaps the Tower of the Winds lies at the bottom of it all.

But this ungracious task of the critic may well be left to a more careful revision. It is pleasanter to turn to a discovery which had not yet come to light when Miss Harrison wrote her pages, but is announced by Dr. Dörpfeld in a supplementary note. In his description of the entrance to the Propylæa, Pausanias remarks casually, "I cannot say with certainty whether the figures of horsemen represent the sons of Xenophon, or are merely decorative in character." Dr. Lolling had conjectured that they stood one on each side by the *anta* of the north and southwest wings respectively. This has been proved by some plinths which were found near the Parthenon, and have been rebuilt as a base for one to the right by the short stairway that led to the Nike temple. The slab upon which the horsemen stood exhibits the trace of the feet, and discloses the fact that the figures were about half the size of life. The inscription shows that Pausanias did not take the trouble to read it, or he read only one word. It states that the statues of the horsemen were constructed from spoils of the enemy when Lacedemonius, Xenophon, and Pronapus were Hipparchs. The artist was Lycius, son of Myron. The forms of the letters prove that it was originally erected about the middle of the fifth century, two generations too early for the sons of Xenophon the writer.

The translation of Pausanias by Mrs. Verrall is easy and flowing. Opportunities for criticism are rare. Pausanias might object when made to say that Mycalessus was "in the middle of Bœotia," and one who has stood on Tegea's site and looked out upon the mountains to the east feels the slight implied by the expression, "Hill of Parthenion"; but such things are not monstrous.

Miss Harrison's opinions upon the artistic merits of the objects she describes are rarely expressed, but such as she gives us are frank and unreserved. Witness her observation upon the reliefs of the Nike balustrade: "They are very beautiful, but they are restless, and a certain striving after effect has begun to corrupt both pose and gesture. They do not wear well to the eye. They are now set up to good advantage in the second right-hand room of the Acropolis Museum, but they were better in their own place, where a man might look at them once, wonder, and go by, up the steps." A very notable merit in her work is the untiring assiduity with which she has gathered material for its illustration. She has utilized not only the ordinary photographs to be had in Athens, but she has taken others herself, and has pressed the cameras of her friends into her service, with the result that the book would be of permanent value, simply for its illustrations, which are to be found nowhere else. Unfortunately, their reproduction is but indifferent, in some cases very bad. The engravings of vase paintings, which are made a special feature by Miss Harrison, are often most excellent. She marshals her forces with great skill, clinching her arguments by appeal to the eye in the most effective way, as may be seen, for example, in her proof of the art type of Athena Polias. It is a pleasure to see Pausanias treated in this way; and while we may despair of having all of his ten books so elucidated, we may suggest to Miss Harrison that scholars would welcome heartily from her pen a similar treatise upon Olympia.

Social History of the Races of Mankind. Third Division: Aoneo-Maranonians. By A. Featherman. London: Trübner & Co. 8vo, pp. xxiii, 480.

WITHOUT information kindly furnished by the author of this formidable volume, no reader of its title would or could form the conception that it signifies the North American Indians. Doubtless the latter is a most unfortunate designation, always recalling the blunder of Columbus, and the writer who shall suggest another name having any chance of popular acceptance will deserve thanks. This has been attempted by the phrase Red Indian and Red Man, but it is now becoming understood that the pre-Columbian peoples of this continent were not red, except when painted, and the title that perpetuates another blunder is properly falling into disuse. Dr. Featherman's amendment is as cumbrous as "North American Indian," while it is not more acceptable on the ground of accuracy. He calls all the peoples of the western hemisphere "Maranonians" from "Maranon, the ancient Indian name of the Amazon River." It may be remarked, in passing, that this was not the name given to that river by all Indians in its vicinity, and, indeed, that there were different names for the several parts of its course. But the valley of the Amazon, called by whatever name selected, is pronounced to be the place of origin of the whole race. Then follows the statement

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(p. 6), "That the Northern Indians came from the southern part of America is conclusively proved by the fact that the only products they cultivated, before the white man had invaded their country, were maize, tobacco, and squashes, which are all of southern origin." Without dwelling on this violent assertion, about which a volume could be written, it might be admitted that all the plants mentioned came from the far South without requiring as a corollary to the proposition that the people also came from there. The conveyance of maize and the knowledge of its cultivation, through intertribal channels, is known to have actually taken place between the Arikara and their neighbors and congeners who first received the "Ree corn" after they were established in the localities where they were earliest met by Europeans. The cultivation of maize among the Siouan tribes does not prove that it was brought by them or their ancestors from South America, any more than does the use among them of the horse, which was introduced into South America, but likewise directly into North America.

The author, notwithstanding his above-quoted dictum, is hopelessly muddled about tobacco. On page 50 he argues that the sacrifice of tobacco among the Iroquois was not ancient because it did not grow in North America, but was introduced there by Europeans. But if it was so introduced, any argument derived from the assertion that the people brought it from South America is demolished. Then, in confusion, he asserts (page 117), that the Powhatans did make a religious use of tobacco. The fact is, that the *Nicotiana tabacum*, the tobacco of commerce, was indigenous to and was cultivated in the West Indies and South America; but the *N. rustica*, also a true tobacco plant, was probably indigenous to and from ancient times was cultivated over a large area of North America. The Indians, from New York to Georgia, are familiar with the difference between these plants. The tobacco used either for ceremonials or for sensual gratification before the advent of the Europeans the Onondagas yet call "real tobacco," and the Cherokees "old tobacco," and from this plant undoubtedly came the old name of the Tobacco Nation of Georgian Bay.

Having decided upon the homogeneity of all the peoples of the continent as Maranonians, Dr. Featherman attempts to name their grand divisions in a less commonplace style than by the mere geographic North and South; so he selects for the Northern tribes the title of "Aoneo." This is a highly euphonized form, copied from Schoolcraft, of ha'-yo-hwe'-no, which in some of the Iroquoian dialects means "the island that floats," referring to the mythic turtle which became magnified into an island and finally into the habitable world. This would not be a bad poetical expression for the continent, but is not likely to prevail, because it requires so much explanation. The above special detail and symbolic name taken from one of the cosmogony myths were never generally known among the Indians, and they are now familiar to very few persons of any race.

The feature in the volume that first strikes the reader is that it pretends to give a classification of the Indian tribes which in fact is no classification, but a mere scheme of chapter headings which, by arbitrary selection of names and illogical grouping, leads to serious errors. Among many examples the following may be noted: The Iroquois, or Five Nations, are called Mengwes, the "Mingos" detested by Cooper's Hawkeye; but that term was not Iroquoian, nor did it apply exclusively to the Five Nations, which were a comparatively small part of the Iroquoian tribes. The word is Algonkian, and, meaning "people of another speech," was in fact applied to the Nottoways of Virginia, and, indeed, to all the Iroquoian tribes. Among these were the Hurons, to whom a separate chapter is assigned, and who are strongly distinguished from the Iroquois proper, or the Five Nations. There is no great objection to the comprehension of all the Iroquoian tribes under the heading of Mengwe, but the description should not be confined to the Iroquois proper, and all the other divisions of that linguistic stock should not be scattered through the volume without order. For instance, the Tuscaroras appear far away in pages from the Mengwes; the names of the Tuscarora tribes are set forth with the error that half of those inventoried were in fact Algonkian, and then (p. 132) comes the statement that they and "the Iroquois or Sinnagars" were mortal enemies. Sinnagars is a bad shot for Senecas, the largest of the Five Nations, and most American schoolboys know that the Tuscaroras spoke the language of the Iroquois and voluntarily united with them, forming the sixth nation. The great Algonkian family is also left in wild confusion. The Iroquoian "Maquas," or Mohawks, are noted as part of it (p. 66), and the Algonkin tribe on the Ottawa River, from which the name came, is not mentioned. On page 89 the "Marechites" are a part of the "Abenaques," and on page 97 they are under the heading of the Micmacs.

The author provides a chapter headed "Mobilians," which he says belong to the Muskogee family and yet comprise about all the Muskogee (or Muskoki) and also other tribes named, notably the Cherokee, who undoubtedly were Iroquoian. It will be information to Congress that the last-mentioned tribes, which are in the Indian Territory, send a delegate to that body (p. 151).

By the chapter-heading "Bonaks" the author chooses to signify all "the California tribes proper," by which he mixes together a considerable number of linguistic stocks much more distinct from one another than the Italians are from the Germans. But perhaps under the head "Chippeways" he excels himself in muddling a simple and thoroughly known subject. He says that they are also called Athapascans, and that one of their divisions is the Chippeways proper, also known as Ojibways. Now the Chippewyans (not Chippeways, who are also known as Ojibways and are Algonkian) are a large branch of the large Athapascan family, and Dr. Featherman has been misled by some authority consulted so that he gives a long description in the wrong place.

The absence of any orderly or correct arrangement has been the occasion of immense repetition. If there had been any proper grouping, remarks and characteristics, whether true or false, might have been expressed in general about the component parts of the several groups. As it is, they are repeated all over the volume, sometimes in the same words, and swell its bulk to inconvenience. Moreover, in copying authorities, by which the author evidently means any book of the mass of published Americana without regard to its comparative value, an enormous number of errors have been painfully transcribed. They begin to astonish the reader in p. xiii of the preface, where it is declared that the Indians in their warfare "did not conquer or appropriate any territory," which is exactly what they did. But it is futile to attempt the enumeration of errors in the work. They appear, on a hasty average, at least once on every one of the five hundred pages.

The author's queer turns of fancy when he tries to discriminate are more interesting than his mere blunders. In many places (*e. g.*, pp. 114, 124, 156) he dwells upon the Indian picture-writing, yet takes a notion (p. 151) that the only comprehensive work on these pictographs, which gives illustrations of them by hundreds, has no value because one or two of the examples are evidently modern, not understanding that the continued use of pictography is most valuable because, its existing methods being known, they explain those of the ancient and undeciphered characters made by the ancestors of the present practitioners, to whom the art has descended. The fact is also noticeable that while the only statement made about the Indians which is at once important, true, and somewhat novel—*i. e.*, that their religion did not include the concept of a single supreme deity—is in the body of the work, the corrections of the popular error on the subject are nearly all made in footnotes or in the preface, which was written later. This fact leads to the inference that Dr. Featherman had read some publications quite lately issued in this country which met with his approval, though he did not see fit to acknowledge them. But if he had read a little more about the totemic system, with its special rules of marriage and descent, he might have corrected his text by more good footnotes. If he had then published his footnotes without the text, his book would have been much improved.

When a volume is without logical order, or, indeed, without any recognizable method, as this is, it may be made of some use by a very good index, but the index to the present volume is as slovenly as the text. It contains but three and one-half pages, and really does not serve any purpose as an index—being only a bad table of contents—and thereby forms an appropriate finial to the whole work which may fitly be regarded as a monument showing how not to write about the North American Indians.

The Economic Basis of Protection. By Simon N. Patten. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1890.

THE author of this work holds a professorial chair in the School of Finance and Economy established by Mr. Wharton in the city of Philadelphia as a propaganda of the dogmas of protectionism. The tutelary divinity of this school of the prophets is, of course, Henry C. Carey, the interpretation of his somewhat obscure utterances having become an occult science employing many devotees, who fill numberless books with their vaticinations. These books, like other amorphous products, are not easily described. Chronologically they belong to the era of the allegorical school of commentators, whose achievements in identifying the scarlet woman and the beast with two horns were thought so admirable some hundreds of years since. By assigning arbitrary and preposterous meanings to words and phrases of well-defined connotation, the writers are able to attain to heights of misunderstanding that are but one step from the sublime. They sincerely believe that a steady current of British gold is poured into this country for the purpose of destroying our manufactures, and that under British rule the fertile and populous plains of India have become a howling wilderness. Fables that nurses would not trust the credulity of infants to believe are gravely expounded as history, and the typical fallacies upon which the mediæval school-men exercised their pupils are selected as the corner-stones of protectionist argument.

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The term "free trade" has become invested with a mystical potency of horror that inflames these votaries with fury, and the youth of Philadelphia are frightened with it into good behavior, as children were once tamed in Italy with the name of Hannibal. The free-trader is there, indeed, no better than an infidel, and he is commonly refuted, as pious writers formerly refuted the unbeliever, by putting in his mouth arguments of the last degree of fatuity, which of course enable the faithful to obtain an easy triumph.

The fundamental proposition upon which these writers construct their system is the celebrated discovery of Carey, that the early settlers of a country generally expend their labor upon such portions of it as are least productive. From this it plainly follows that as they extend their operations, more productive land is continually reached, thus practically demonstrating the absurdity of Ricardo's theory that men will select for occupation that land which they consider will give them the best return for their labor, and that, as population increases, other land will be brought under cultivation. This discovery of Carey's is more fruitful than it might at first seem, for it may be inferred from it that if early settlers are such fools, their descendants are not to be trusted to know what is for their own interest, and need the stimulus of a protective policy on the part of their rulers. This inference is actually drawn in the book which is before us. The abandoned farms in the Eastern and Middle States are pointed out as illustrations of the deceptive character of self-interest as a guide. Instead of working these lands, the farmers ought to have waited until Government opened railways to the prairies of the West, where labor would have a better reward. The further inference may be derived that the use of stage-coaches was always a blunder, and people ought to have gone afoot, or sat still until their rulers discovered the use of steam. In fact, they never should have worn clothing until their Government had developed the arts of spinning and weaving and invented the sewing-machine.

That there is no exaggeration in this appears from the proposition of the author that Congress should put a stop to the use of woollen clothes. He considers that cotton is a more suitable material than wool for clothing, and that the sooner people are brought to see it the better; although, singularly enough, considering the difficulty of dyeing cotton, he also maintains that the use of white clothing must be discontinued. He has decided that that color is not suited to our climate. With much complacency he observes that wool has become very expensive, that the use of cotton in our winter garments is rapidly increasing, and that "the day is not far distant when many of them will be woollen more in name than in fact." That day, so far as poor people are concerned, has in this country already arrived. It is interesting to learn upon such good authority that this is the result aimed at by protection. The same principle applies to food. Our "Government should raise the price of our agricultural products, now crudely produced, so as to give more inducement to scientific production." Taxes should be imposed upon the staple articles of consumption to assist our development. "Taxes on tobacco and liquors are of particular value in this respect, and have done much towards reducing the use not only of these articles, but also the whole diet consumed by those who use them."

The policy of reducing the "diet consumed" by the common people is certainly characteristic of paternal governments, but experience has shown that too low a diet is not conducive to long life. If Congress should be composed of thinkers like this author, there is ground for apprehension that many of its subjects would find themselves without the means of support while new occupations were being provided for them. Prof. Patten has discovered that the soil of the West, and, in fact, of America, "is poorly fitted to the cultivation of grain." The Southern planters make a mistake in not devoting part of their cotton lands to the cultivation of tea. "Drain the whole surface of Florida, and our dependence upon Cuba would cease." In general, we Americans "are not using our land for that for which it is best fitted, nor are we cultivating it in a way that will make it most productive." Congress ought to change all this by proper taxes.

Another important discovery made by Prof. Patten is, that "the past development of the American people has been the gradual surmounting of a series of obstacles." We are not quite sure that this discovery is original, but as it may not have been heard of in Philadelphia, it is well that it should be impressively announced. Of course, it follows from this that obstacles are necessary for our further development, and that it is the duty of rulers to provide them—a duty which we had supposed had never been neglected. The aim of society is not the production of wealth, but the "opening of new occupations." Articles which are produced in semi-tropical countries, "where nature supplies all the conditions necessary to production," ought not to be produced there. "They must be cultivated in places where nature is less favorable and does less for the production of the crop, but where this disadvantage is counteracted by the greater efficiency of the labor in civilized countries, together with a greater use of capital." To work harder and spend more to produce a result now attained with less exertion and expense, is certainly the quintessence of protectionism.

It is clear that if most of the occupations which men choose for themselves are shut up, others must be opened up, so that the policy of protection is simpler than it appears. Only stop men from doing what they think will be profitable, and you may be sure you are adopting a wise national policy. National prosperity is a very different thing from "that of the individuals who form the nation at any given time." It seems that every citizen might be enjoying the greatest prosperity while the nation itself was in ruins. No historical examples are produced of this remarkable phenomenon, and in fact no arguments from experience are adduced in the book, the author wisely observing that "the theory of a subject must always be developed previous to any intelligent study of the facts." Those who would investigate this theory further, whether to disclose its merits or draw forth its frailties, may be appeased with the statement that "national prosperity depends upon the natural laws regulating the supply of raw material, and upon the industrial possibilities of the people."

We have made a sort of anthology from this book, culling from its pages a number of most delectable passages, but it would be unfair to give more of them. Doubtless it has occurred to our readers that the author is not serious, and that he intends to satirize the protectionists under cover of a pretended exposition of their views. It certainly seems incredible that the dismal scarecrow of protectionism here exhibited should be soberly presented as a national ideal. But while this supposition would be kind, so far as the intellect of the author is concerned, it is hardly probable that he would deliberately discredit the doctrines that he is employed to teach. Yet we confess that we are perplexed by his contention that the tariff is unfavorable to natural monopolies. This can hardly be satisfactory, if it is honestly meant, to the protected monopolists who control our mines and forests; and how about Mr. Wharton's monopoly of nickel? Still, if Mr. Wharton is content, we are not aware that it matters to any one else, unless the pupils of his School of Finance and Economy are to be considered. These young gentlemen seem to enjoy educational privileges that have never been equalled outside of the University of Laputa.

The Unknown God; or, Inspiration among Pre-Christian Races. By C. Loring Brace. A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1890.

THE tone of Mr. Brace's present work is distinctly different from his 'Gesta Christi'—so different as to suggest contrast rather than comparison. It is much more liberal and catholic than that, which, in its anxiety to claim for Christianity the credit of all beneficent activities contemporaneous with its development, read *propter hoc* for *post hoc* all the way, making little or no allowance for circumstances of nationality or race as affecting the result. We were left to infer that Christianity in India and Buddhism in Europe would have brought forth the same fruits that we have seen could they have been transplanted in the germ; whereas in that case Christianity would probably have been very much like what we now call Buddhism, and Buddhism very much like what we now call Christianity. Mr. Brace's new volume is a palinode correcting the bias of the former. Here he has brought together a great mass of evidence, in a perfectly apprehensible and thoroughly popular form, in proof of the stock of moral and religious ideas common to the religions of antiquity. (Taoism and Confucianism and the religion of our Teutonic ancestors are omitted from his consideration.) Instead of pursuing the old method, which branded these religions as false, and sought only to place their defects in contrast with the merits of Christianity, he has sought out what is excellent in them, and, by massing it, has made it exceedingly impressive.

The book is well calculated to abate the conceit of many Christians that their religion is the sole depository of truth and good. It has nothing of the trick that vitiates a book which is superior to this in many ways, viz., Dr. James Freeman Clarke's 'Ten Great Religions,' which was bent throughout on showing that Christianity is a *pleroma* containing all the good there was in the other nine religions without any of their defects. It will be strange if the Christian reader does not covet many of the sentences that are quoted here for his own Scriptures, or even if he would not be willing to exchange for them some of those passages in the Old Testament or New which are the delight of those to whom the Westminster Confession is entirely satisfactory without the slightest emendation.

Nothing in Mr. Brace's book becomes it less than its title. It is the Known God it celebrates, not the Unknown. Mr. Brace's contention throughout is, that the non-Jewish races knew the true God, by whatever name they called him, not with the fulness of the Jewish revelation, but very wonderfully and gloriously. For all his catholicity, Mr. Brace still holds to the Jewish and Christian revelations as something special; and while frequently appearing to make their difference one merely of

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degree, he often gives a different impression. He speaks of them as being full and perfect. But if the Jewish revelation was so, the Christian revelation would seem to have been superfluous.

A few other matters call for the briefest word. From Mr. Brace's chapter on "The Jews and the Egyptians" it would appear that his Old Testament studies have been meagre in comparison with his studies of other religions. Either he has no acquaintance with the course of such criticism as is represented by Kuenen and Wellhausen and Reuss and Robertson Smith, or he does not consider it as worth a passing word of refutation. We read of Moses as if he were a clearly defined historic character, and as if the Pentateuch, if not written by him, were fairly representative of his morals and religion. Hebrew monotheism is set down as an inheritance from Egypt, and not a gradual acquisition, attaining no consistency till many centuries after the time of Moses. Yet he quotes the extremely interesting and significant prophecy of Micah (720 B. C.): "Every people will walk in the name of his God, and we will walk in the name of Jahveh for ever," implying clearly that, even to a prophet so advanced and spiritual, Jahveh was not the only God. In the mention of Enoch (p. 48) there is no suggestion of the possibility, suggested by his 365 years, that he was a solar myth; and to say that the doctrine of a future life "comes forth clear and distinct in Job, the Psalms of David (*sic*), and the Prophets," is to go counter to the whole tendency of recent criticism, of which Warburton's 'Divine Legation of Moses' was a blundering anticipation. It is the more strange that Mr. Brace finds the resurrection of the body clearly set forth in Job xix., 25-27, because he quotes from the Revised Version, which makes the force of the passage tolerably plain, viz., that before Job dies, however his body be wasted by disease, he will see his Redeemer—*Goel, i. e.*, Vindicator—on the earth. The author of Job is spoken of as if he were a patriarch of the times in which the story has its setting, and not a writer probably as late as 600 B. C. It is not correctly said that "Schrader derives the name Jahveh from the Assyrian god Jahon [*sic*, a misprint for Jahou], and Renan, in his 'History of Israel,' follows him." Renan allows the possibility of truth in Schrader's derivation, but inclines strongly to the opinion that Jahveh was a local god of the region about Sinai or a provincial god of Palestine, and he regards him as a dreadful falling-off from the primitive Elohim to whom prophecy returned.

One of the strangest of Mr. Brace's freaks is his forgetfulness of the Christian doctrine of the devil. Several times he attacks the dualism of the Zorastrian religion without, apparently, the ghost of a suspicion that Christianity in its historical development has always been a dualistic faith. To say that "such a faith cannot feed the human soul, and dies out at last," is to criticise Christianity severely as well as Parseeism. What is dying out is apparently the dualism, leaving the general faith unharmed, though that has had an able advocate of late in Dr. Edwin A. Abbott, author of the article on the Gospels in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' On page 125, Tennyson's "Higher Pantheism" is quoted as one of his early poems. The volume in which it first appeared was 'The Holy Grail, and Other Poems,' published in 1869, when the poem was of recent date.

But Mr. Brace's book might lack much more than it does of carefulness and it would still be at least a beautiful anthology, well calculated to foster that sympathy of religions which is a steadily increasing element in our modern life.

Life and Times of Ephraim Cutler. Prepared from his Journals and Correspondence by his daughter, Julia Perkins Cutler, with biographical sketches of Jervis Cutler and William Parker Cutler. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1890.

THIS biography is a chapter in the early history of Ohio. Ephraim Cutler was the son of Dr. Manasseh Cutler, one of the principal promoters of the Ohio Company, and naturally sought his fortunes with the early emigrants. He was born at Edgartown, Martha's Vineyard, and bred by his grandparents at Killingly, Conn., and on their death went to Ohio with his wife and children. He was then twenty-eight years old. His reminiscences of these early years contain trifling anecdotes of the Revolutionary times, and some illustrations of the character of the Puritan communities, but little of any personal interest. The story really begins with the hard journey overland to the Western settlements, on which he lost two children and suffered severely from illness; and from this point the picture of the pioneer life becomes full of detail, and the more instructive inasmuch as there is no attempt to do anything but set down a plain record of facts. He began immediately the work of felling trees and planting corn, cutting roads, surveying, exploring, and the rough, hard labor of an energetic and public-spirited settler. His father's influence, who was then a Representative at Washington, procured him some official appointments in the Territory, and he soon made an impression upon the people among whom he was to pass his life, as a capable and trustworthy man. He was neither brilliant nor ambitious, but merely ready to serve and conscientious in his work. His own account of the difficulty he had in overcoming his diffidence, and in feeling himself a man of weight and influence, is on its face sufficient proof that he was no more than a man of sound and vigorous sense trying to do his duty.

His public service was really considerable in the end. He was a member of the Territorial Legislature, and officially interested in education at an earlier time; but his first conspicuous service was in the convention that framed the State Constitution. He was opposed to the project of Statehood, and consequently in a minority, but he succeeded in winning over his opponents on several important points; and in particular the judiciary article, which established a circuit system, the prohibition of slavery, which was adopted against the advice of Jefferson and after considerable opposition, on the ground that it would discourage Southern emigration, and the articles upon religion, education, and the schools, were all from him. He was not upon the popular side in politics, and had little further employment in them until after a score of years, when he served again in the House and Senate. During this second period he carried two most important measures after great effort. The first was to make effective that article of the Constitution which directed the establishment of schools "for ever" by the State, but which had been a dead letter up to the time that Mr. Cutler introduced his public-school legislation; the second was a reform of land taxation, by which the system of an assessment at cash value on actual view was substituted for that of an assessment by dividing all land into three classes, each of which paid a tax the same per acre for all parcels within the class. In both of these instances he deserved great credit for overcoming the peculiarly obstructive opposition of those who raised the cry that every man should pay for his own children's education, and, in the other case, of those richer and more populous counties which profited enormously by the old class system of land values. The reform of taxation, which touched also upon other sources of taxes besides land, was practically his individual work, and it required considerable administrative ability to draft the scheme of officials and duties which the new legislation made necessary. He was also in later years a mover in the improvement of the roads and introduction of railroads, and for thirty years was an active trustee of the Ohio University at Athens.

Together with these public interests, he carried on his own business of farming, setting up mills, founding new towns, driving his own cattle to market, and helping and advising the new settlers. He assisted, it is said, at least 200 families in acquiring their new homes, conveying them the land, and waiting their convenience for payment, besides being a generous friend in other ways. He lived this laborious and useful life until 1853, when he died, at the age of eighty-six, in consequence of an accident received in riding horseback. The pages of his journal are strewn with kindly notices of others of the first settlers and leading men of the community, whose hard lives and simple strength of character belong to the same school.

The volume concludes with brief accounts, first, of his brother Jervis, in whom the natural ability of the Cutler family showed itself in less noteworthy ways, and finally took the form of engraving, a profession which he followed in Tennessee and Indiana; and secondly, of his son William Parker, who, though hampered by ill health, won prominence in politics, was a member of the Thirty-seventh Congress, and afterwards was employed in the building and extension of railroads, notably in the Hocking Valley. He died in 1889. A curiosity of the volume is found in the notes kept by Mr. Cutler of the sayings and doings of the secret Republican caucus in Washington in '62-'63, in which the temper of the time towards Lincoln is strikingly illustrated. An appendix contains some speeches and historical papers.

The English Novel in the Time of Shakespeare. By J. J. Jusserand. Translated from the French by Elizabeth Lee. Revised and enlarged by the author. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1890.

THE subject of this volume is the English story before it became the novel of De Foe and Richardson. The author goes back to 'Beowulf,' and describes also the Norman-French tales, the old English romances, and generally all the primitive forms of story-telling before he takes up the main part of his matter in the chapters on Lyly and his imitators, Sir Philip Sidney and the 'Arcadia,' and the Elizabethan novels. He treats of these origins of the novel in a popular and at the same time a scholarly fashion, filling his pages with large extracts from the texts and with ample and curious illustrations out of old books. He discriminates between the romantic tales and the realistic sketches of Green, gives a sufficient account of Lodge, and a very full analysis of Nash's prose work, in whose 'Jack Wilton' he finds the most promising and complete foreshadowing of the novel as it was to become, and pays sufficient attention to the literary history of his subject to speak of the Spanish origin of Euphuism and the "picaresque" tale, to show how "Arcadianism"

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differed from Euphuism, and to narrate the fortunes of "Grobianism." The whole is entertaining, and lays open to the general reader the character and contents of many books not easily accessible and not worth much attention except from the professional student. Finally, M. Jusserand describes the "heroical" romances of the seventeenth century, imported from France, and the reaction against them, touches on the work of the "matchless Orinda," the Duchess of Newcastle, and Mrs. Behn, and concludes by giving an excellent impression of the literary atmosphere that fed the dramas of Dryden and his companion playwrights, the little masters of mere extravagance. Throughout the volume one sees the signs and prophecies (mostly in the form of prodigies) of the novel, its infertile beginnings, experiments leading nowhere. To bring philosophy down from the clouds was not seemingly a harder task than to subject imagination to the yoke of this life.

The point of view taken by the author, which is our modern novel, gives an air of extraordinary crudeness and stupidity to the tales of the early writers. It seem inexplicable that, after Sidney's 'Defense of Poesie,' English prose was so long in finding its canons, and that, with the strong sense of reality in the English race, the "heroical" novel should have held its own, and have imposed upon Dryden the mountain-labors of his absurdities. But these, and other curiosities of the intellectual development of literature, its retardation, its incredible conservatism, its foolish fashions, are well set forth by M. Jusserand, who, however, is more sensible of the meritorious and attractive in these early writers than of the qualities we have hinted at. Among the more interesting cuts, besides some excellent portraits, we notice the interior of the Swan Theatre from the drawing of 1596, recently discovered in the Utrecht Library, and the map of the "tendre" country out of Scudéry's 'Clélie.'

Henry M. Stanley: His Life, Travels and Explorations. By the Rev. Henry W. Little. London: Chapman & Hall; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1890. Pp. xv, 456, 8vo.

THIS is not so much a biography as an account of the various enterprises in which Mr. Stanley has been engaged. The chapters upon the Abyssinian and Ashantee wars, for instance, give brief but interesting accounts of their causes, the country marched through, and the striking events of the campaigns. In addition to the narrative of the personal adventures of his hero in tracing the Congo to its mouth, Mr. Little relates at some length the political history of the Congo State. There is also much information about Central Africa, the people, their language, customs, the climate, and the scenery. Although recent events in the Sudan and the work of Emin Pasha in the Equatorial Province are sufficiently dwelt upon to explain the necessity of an expedition for his rescue, the author has the good taste to treat of this very briefly, evidently not desiring in any way to forestall Mr. Stanley's own book.

Mr. Little is no mere compiler, but writes intelligently and with some personal experience of Africa. The first part of his work is better than the last, which shows many signs of haste in its preparation. His style is picturesque, though at times too ornate, and his tone is more that of a panegyrist than of a sober historian. The book, nevertheless, has a value as a trustworthy record of important events in the development of Equatorial Africa.

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Abel, W. J. School Hygiene. Longmans, Green & Co.
Acton, J. Verses. Philadelphia: Bellstein & Co.
Apples of Eden. The Minerva Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Arnoux, W. H. The Dutch in America. New York.
Augustin-Thierry, G. Le Capitaine Sans-Façon. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Babcock, W. H. Cypress Beach. Washington: Wm. H. Babcock. 40 cents.
Baker, Beth. Mystery Evans. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
Bayfield, M. A. Euripides: Alcestis. Macmillan & Co. 40 cents.
Beard, W. S. Longman's Junior School Algebra. Longmans, Green & Co.
Bolles, A. S. Bank Officers: Their Authority, Duty, and Liability. Homans Publishing Co.
Bottone, S. R. Electric Bells and All about Them. Excelsior Publishing House.
Bowyer, J. T. The Witch of Jamestown. Richmond: J. W. Randolph & English.
Boynton, H. The World's Greatest Conflict. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Brinton, D. G., and Davidson, T. Giordano Bruno. Philadelphia: David McKay.
Broadus, J. A. Jesus of Nazareth. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Chamberlain, N. H. What's the Matter? or, Our Tariff and its Taxes. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
Child, G. W. Church and State under the Tudors. Longmans, Green & Co.
Childs, G. W. Recollections. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Chisholm, G. G. A Smaller Commercial Geography. Longmans, Green & Co.
Clark, J. W., and Hughes, T. McK. Life and Letters of the Rev. Adam Sedgwick. 2 vols. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Conway, W. M. Climbers' Guide to the Central Pennine Alps. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Cusack, M. F. C. Life Inside the Church of Rome. G. W. Dillingham.
Daphnis and Chloe. London: David Nutt.
Darmesteter, J. La Légende Divine. Paris: Alphonse Lemerre.
De Tunzelmann, G. W. Electricity in Modern Life. Scribner & Welford. $1.25.
Diehl, C. Excursions Archéologiques en Grèce. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Die Politik des Unbewussten. Leipzig: Renger.
Durham, W. Evolution, Antiquity of Man, Bacteria, etc. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Farjeon, B. L. The Mystery of M. Felix. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Fawcett, E. Fabian Dimitry. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Field, Michael. The Tragic Mary. London: Geo. Bell & Sons.
Fiske, A. K. Midnight Talks. Fords, Howard & Hulbert.
Fletcher, C. Me and Chummy. Washington: Sterling Publishing Co.
Giovanni Pico della Mirandola. London: David Nutt.
Gow, G. C. A Rose Cycle. Boston: The Boston Music Co.
Gray, J. Electrical Influence Machines. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Greene, Rev. T. The Greenville Baptist Church in Leicester, Mass.: Worcester: C. F. Lawrence & Co.
Hackel, E. The True Grasses. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Hale, H. Chinook Jargon. Scribner & Welford. $1.20.
Hardy, E. G. Plutarch's Lives of Galba and Otho. Macmillan & Co. $1.40.
Harris, J. A. The Calvinistic Doctrine of Election and Reprobation. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Hawley, J. G. The Law of Arrest. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co.
Helmburg, W. Lucie's Mistake. Worthington Co.
Herrick, Christine T. Liberal Living upon Narrow Means. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Higginson, S. J. Java: The Pearl of the East. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
Howe, F. H. The New Evadne. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
Howe, H. M. The Metallurgy of Steel. The Scientific Publishing Co.
Johnston, Prof. H. P. The Correspondence and Public Papers of John Jay. Vol. I. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Jusserand, J. J. The English Novel in the Time of Shakspere. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Karr, Elizabeth. The American Horsewoman. New ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Kopta, F. P. Bohemian Legends and Ballads. Schüttenhofen: A. Jansky.
Korolenko, V. The Blind Musician. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.25.
Lamartine, A. de. Raphael. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Lanza, Clara. A Modern Marriage. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Lovett, Rev. R. London Pictures, Drawn with Pen and Pencil. New York: Fleming H. Revell. $3.20.
Lyon, S. For a Mess of Pottage. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Maartens, M. The Sin of Joost Avelingh. F. F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Mack, Dr. C. S. Philosophy in Homœopathy. Chicago: Gross & Delbridge.
Macleod, H. D. Theory of Credit. Longmans, Green & Co.
Madagascar, or Robert Drury's Journal during Fifteen Years' Captivity on that Island. Macmillan & Co. $1.50.
Maitland, E., and Kingsford, Anna B. The Perfect Way; or, The Finding of Christ. F. F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Maupassant, Guy de. New Stories. Minerva Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Meade, L. T. A Girl of the People. F. F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Miller, J. B. Trade Organizations in Politics. The Baker & Taylor Co.
Molee, E. Pure Saxon English, or, Americans to the Front. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. $1.
Monsabré, Père. Marriage. Benziger Brothers.
Montague, C. H., and Dyar, C. W. Written in Red. Cassell Publishing Co.
Montgomery, D. H. Heroic Ballads. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Ouida. Syrlin. F. F. Lovell & Co. 50 cents.
Owen, E. A Manual of Anatomy. Longmans, Green & Co.
Parsons, A. R. Parsifal. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Pendleton, J. Newspaper Reporting. A. C. Armstrong & Son.
Phillips's Elite Directory for 1890–91. W. Phillips & Co.
Phillipps-Wolley, C. Snap. Longmans, Green & Co.
Powers, W. D. Why Not and Why? D. Appleton & Co.
Prindle, H. R. The Electric Railway of To-day. Boston: E. B. Stillings & Co. 50 cents.
Rogez, P., and Berlitz, M. D. Littérature Française. Berlitz & Cie.
Robinson, F. W. Our Erring Brother of Church and Chapel. F. F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Roe, E. R. Belteshazzar. Chicago: Donohue, Henneberry & Co. $1.
Rutherford, W. G. First Greek Syntax. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. Marie Antoinette and the End of the Old Régime. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Saxby, J. M. E. West-Nor'-West. London: James Nisbet & Co.
Sewell, A. Black Beauty: His Grooms and Companions. Boston: American Humane Education Society. 20 cents.

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